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Current Trends in Public Library Services for Children

ANN CARLSON WEEKS
Issue Editor

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Introduction

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IT HAS BEEN ALMOST twenty-five years since an issue of *Library Trends* last focused on services to children in public libraries. In those twenty-five years, radical changes have occurred in society. In the 1960s, the American educational system reeled from the effects of Sputnik and the space race. As a result, local, state, and federal money was freely spent on education and social programs. By the mid-1970s the money was beginning to diminish. Proposition 13 in California and similar legislation in other states severely curtailed social and educational programs, and services for children were among those most severely affected.

The Vietnam era resulted in a generation of young people who openly and vehemently criticized the nation's government. At the end of the conflict, significant numbers of refugees from Southeast Asia joined those from other nations immigrating to the United States. These waves of new Americans resulted in dramatic changes in the demographics of many major cities. The women's movement changed the structure and norms of the American family as increasing numbers of women entered the work force. Rising inflation coupled with new opportunities for women ensured that this trend continued into the 1980s and further changed society. This decade has seen a resurgence of emphasis on education and an increasingly conservative political climate.

The authors of papers in this issue of *Library Trends* discuss public library service to children within the context of this period. They

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address the question of how services to children have changed as a result of societal influences and further speculate on how children's services must change to meet the new demands of the information age in the next century.

Jill Locke and Margaret Kimmel of the University of Pittsburgh introduce the issue through a description of the period in a demographic study. These writers outline the changes in society that have affected children and those that will continue to affect them in the next century. They raise questions such as "In a nation in which 55 percent of all children have working mothers and 40 percent of all children born between 1970 and 1980 will spend at least part of their childhood in a one-parent home, are traditional library services for preschool and school-age children still appropriate and viable? What is the role of the public library in communities where one out of three female-headed families lives in poverty?

The articles by Alice Naylor of Appalachian State University and Dorothy Anderson of UCLA address the issue of the role of the public library in the community. How have changes in the perception of this role affected library services to children? Naylor examined the literature of the library profession and surveyed practitioners and educators to identify trends and specific factors that have resulted in changes to service. Anderson collected the opinions of current library administrators on library services to children and compared them to those expressed by leading administrators more than 100 years ago. Not surprisingly, she found similarities in the responses to the questions by the two groups, especially in the area of social outreach. Although the mandate for outreach was seen as a moral obligation in the past, administrators today see it as a factor for survival. The development of a literate middle-class public is critical for the continuance of the public library.

Many children's librarians today view their role differently from that of their predecessors. The children's specialist of the 1980s is often a department head and a member of the management team. Barbara Ivy of Texas Woman's University discusses the importance of this role and offers suggestions as to how these management skills can be more fully developed.

Services to children with special needs have taken on added importance in many public libraries. Judith Rovenger, children's consultant for the Westchester (New York) Library System, is considered a leader in the development of library services for children with learning disabilities. Rovenger describes her work with experts from the Foundation for

Children with Learning Disabilities in creating materials and programs to help children's librarians work with these individuals with special needs.

Although the focus of this issue is on services, it seemed appropriate to include an article describing how literature for children has changed during this tumultuous period. Barbara Elleman, children's book review editor for *Booklist*, published by the American Library Association, traces the changes in subject matter and markets for children's books. She speculates on how changes in society have influenced the materials children read.

Children's librarians are faced by a "seemingly endless stream of new technology" reports Linda Ward-Callaghan, youth services department head at the Deerfield (Illinois) Public Library. The author has chosen to discuss three technologies—microcomputers, video, and television—in terms of their effects on library services for children. Ward-Callaghan concludes that the future of library services to children may be influenced by the manner in which children's librarians incorporate these technologies into their services.

How does one evaluate the quality and significance of children's services? For many years these services were simply considered a "common good." Mary K. Chelton of the Virginia Beach (Virginia) Public Library System challenges this traditional position with her paper on evaluation. Chelton provides rationale for the importance of evaluation and suggests means of collecting, analyzing, and using data appropriately to improve services.

Among the concerns of professionals in the children's field is the perceived shortage of individuals entering the specialty. Anecdotal information indicates that library schools are deemphasizing course offerings in the children and young adult specialties and shifting resources and personnel to other areas. A 1985 survey of ALA-accredited library schools conducted by Margaret Bush of Simmons College and Melody Allen of the Rhode Island State Library suggests that these fears may not be justified. Among the findings described in their paper were that 88 percent of faculty in the youth areas were either tenured or tenure-track professors and that there was a significant increase in the number of continuing education offerings in the youth areas during the period of the study.

Finally, what do we really need to know about public library service to children as we approach the twenty-first century? Leslie Edmonds of the University of Illinois (Urbana-Champaign) suggests that many aspects of library service to children are based on superstition. Edmonds

calls for a careful examination of relevant research in reading to serve as the basis for the development of improved library services. Furthermore, she calls for a commitment by library educators and practitioners to measure both basic and innovative services to children to determine their relevance.

Clearly the past twenty-five years have been turbulent ones in this country. The authors of papers in this issue indicate that many public libraries have had limited success in offering services and materials that reflect the changes that have occurred in society. The proficiency with which children's specialists meet the continuing changes during the remainder of this century may well shape the future of the public library in the twenty-first century.

Children of the Information Age: Changes and Challenges

JILL L. LOCKE
MARGARET MARY KIMMEL

Introduction

THE CONCERN ABOUT CHILDREN, their care, and their needs, has grown to such proportions that it is a major topic of interest not only at the dining room table but also in board rooms and on television. In recent months major networks have produced programs on the provision of financial resources to support children and families, on the alarming increase in young adolescent pregnancy (babies having babies), and on family structure and instability as it affects the lives of children.

What is the state of the world for children in the 1980s? Is there a crisis? Has the family changed so drastically that the young are threatened? The success of "The Cosby Show" as a television comedy points to the enduring search for a two parent, loving household. There are major differences, of course, between "Leave It to Beaver" and the Cosby household antics, but the fact that the family theme and audience appeal both have developed among two generations is undeniable. What are the factors that affect the child of today?

It is the purpose of this article to explore three broad areas that provide a context for understanding the provision of information services to children and young people in the 1980s and the development of

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services as we move toward the twenty-first century. The first is youngsters themselves, their physical needs, and intellectual development. The second—family structure—is a significant area for study since it provides the foundation for a child's development. Changes in working patterns, parenting practices, even size of families has an impact on the lives of the young. And finally, social, economic, and political factors will be examined as they create a climate that fosters or inhibits a healthy environment for children.

A traditional view of childhood suggests an idyllic time, a protected cocoon from which one emerges as a competent, productive citizen. New and intense pressures on the family, however, may rob this traditional picture of some of its safeguards. Adults as well as children are bombarded with an overwhelming amount of information, inescapable and immediate. Social and political systems geared to a different pace cannot always cope. Today's challenge may be to adapt the system or to change it.

Changing Aspects of Childhood

While children of the 1960s played with hula hoops and Etch-a-Sketch, today's youngster manipulates GoBots and transformers, Cabbage Patch preemies and Masters of the Universe. There are greater expectations from parents as well as greater pressures. Children are pulled in different directions. On the one hand the child is exhorted to do better at school, on the other hand youngsters are offered unlimited and unmonitored television access. There is alarm at the number of adolescent pregnancies while sexuality is flaunted by purveyors of everything from jeans to soft drinks. The planet is endangered from nuclear bombs and nuclear waste as youngsters parade proudly in camouflage jackets and play "Rambo."

Such emulation of adults is not new, but the period of life known as childhood has changed dramatically in the past century. At one time childhood ended at the age of seven when speech developed. In all but ruling classes, childhood was a brief period preparatory to apprenticeship. Since the entire family was a production unit, children were often separated from the family to work as part of adult society.[1]

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there were gradual changes in life-styles and family concerns. Books related to child care were written that included medical advice as well as instruction on manners and morals. By the late nineteenth century, the middle class

showered their new wealth upon their children as objects of consumption. Children were more visible in society and social reformers drew attention to practices that harmed and hindered their growth. Child labor laws regulated the amount of time spent in mills and compulsory education acts demanded attendance at school.

Today's child in America experiences a prolonged dependence on the family at the same time that that unit is undergoing much stress and change. Young people are not expected to join the work force until their late teen years or following extensive training beyond secondary school. Yet more and more youngsters have part-time jobs; some estimates indicate that adolescents spend more time at work and/or watch television than all classroom hours combined.

Children's futures are still determined by family status, resources, and child-rearing practices. There has been a shift of emphasis, however, that influences the child in contemporary Western society: (1) the individual, not the family, is becoming the basic unit; (2) women are regarded with more dignity and respect; (3) society recognizes self-awareness in childhood; and (4) greater value is placed on sincerity, loyalty to self, and personal honesty rather than social harmony.[2]

Many aspects of childhood are contradictory. More and more knowledge has been gained about medical care. Much has been done in work with newborns who are at risk because of premature birth or some injury or defect. Advances in neonatology give premature infants weighing between 2.2 and 3.2 pounds as good a chance at survival as a full-term baby had in 1900.[3] It is equally true, however, that the infant mortality rate for nonwhites is double that of whites, and the nonwhite maternal death rate is four times as high as whites.[4]

In a report from the Children's Defense Fund, some startling comparisons are made between children from black and white families. Black children are twice as likely to die in their first year, suffer a lower birth weight, have mothers who receive no prenatal care, or be born into a teenage or single parent family. These same children are three times as likely to have mothers who die in childbirth, to be murdered before they are nine, or to die of child abuse. As teens they are five times as likely to become pregnant as their nonblack contemporaries, and twelve times as likely to live with a never married parent.[5] These statements point to some significant policy issues that need consideration. The Defense Fund has pointed out that today there is a more clearly stated policy on protecting animals than children.

Some children, on the other hand, are pressured to achieve. Pediatricians report an increase of patients with headaches, stomach aches,

allergic reactions, and what some identify as Type A behavior. This syndrome is characterized by demanding, high strung, and competitive behavior.[6] Even babies are caught in the "need to achieve" trap. Superbabies are taught to read before they can crawl or are pushed to get into the right college before they go to nursery school.

The term "hothousing" has been used to describe efforts to provide a learning environment that speeds up the learning process. Educators point out, however, the value of play and sequential development for all young children. Yale psychologist Edward Zigler condemns hothousing as a yuppie phenomenon "in which parents try to transfer their own hyperambitious goals to children" and contends that early-learning efforts have "no long-term effect on middle-class kids."[7]

Brazelton summarizes the concern of many:

> One reason that the "superbaby syndrome" has caught on readily in this generation is that there is a kind of vacuum in cultural values for young parents. Cognitive performance is easy to measure and demonstrate to your friends. It becomes a way for young parents to feel successful in their parenting....My own bias is strong. Emotional development is the base for future cognitive success. If a child develops a good sense of himself and of his competence in all areas, he will be ready to acquire cognitive competence later on....Our society may need a serious reevaluation—we are raising children to be highly individualistic, intellectually clever, and self-motivated—to the exclusion of others around them. Do we want to create cognitive monsters?[8]

Society's views of childhood throughout history have changed and expanded the length of dependency of the young. Today's child has more opportunities yet has added pressures to produce and succeed. With all the conflicting theories, advice, and exhortations, young children are the most analyzed group in contemporary society. While some claim that the child's chief project is being at home in the world, this state of being is not made any easier by "the legions of social scientists who vie for theoretical ascendancy and prescriptive power over parents and teachers. The cult of expertise is now entrenched everywhere—from maternity wards to schools."[9]

Families at Risk

All children need some kind of support to grow into healthy, functioning adults. The family has traditionally fulfilled this role, but many conditions appear to be threatening this most basic social unit. In many ways the image of the American family has changed drastically.

The number of children living with both parents, for instance, has shifted and the division between black and white families is even more marked as shown in table 1.

TABLE 1
PROJECTED PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN LIVING WITH ONE OR TWO PARENTS DURING CHILDHOOD (UP TO AGE 17)[10]

Year(s) of Birth	*Single Parent Families*		*Two Parent Families*	
	Black Children	*White Children*	*Black Children*	*White Children*
1950-54	48%	19%	78%	92%
1980	94%	70%	41%	69%

Urie Bronfenbrenner, noted psychologist, cites significant changes in the American family in the past quarter century. He identified four specific factors affecting these changes: (1) the increase in working mothers; (2) fewer adults in the home; (3) more single-parent families; and (4) more children of unwed mothers. This fragmentation and isolation of the family occurs among younger parents and increasingly among families of *all* races and strata in society.[11]

In addition to structural changes in the family, the number of children being born is markedly different. In the United States, married couples are having children at a later age and childlessness is rising particularly among college-trained career women. In the past fifteen years the childless rate has doubled.[12] This population rate decrease is not the case worldwide however. Demographic forecasters at the Rockefeller Foundation predict that between 1980 and 2000 the population for the African continent will increase by 75 percent, Latin America by 65 percent, and North America by 17 percent at the most.[13]

Although the fertility rate trends are down, the size of the total U.S. population will not decline in the twentieth century. Births still outnumber deaths, immigrants arrive, and the baby boomers are now having babies themselves. It is estimated that it will take about sixty-five years for the population to stabilize at zero growth even if the current rates continue.[14]

Other factors affect family size and the population growth rate. Experts predict that women who have entered the work force are there to

stay. Inflation means that pressures are rising for many families to have two paychecks to maintain their accustomed standard of living and perhaps improve it a bit. In the past, fertility rates have tended to rise during economic booms and fall during recessions. Today, however, women who can earn higher wages in the labor market will tend to have fewer children keeping the fertility rate low.[15]

Women have moved into the work force in unprecedented numbers and their roles have changed rapidly. Some experts feel that women have been given little support for their nurturing side; they are proving to the marketplace their independence, competitiveness, and equality. Unfortunately the number of men who feel the need to work in the marketplace *and* learn to nurture has not grown as much.[16]

According to Brazelton, today's families are pioneers on the forefront of a revolution. They have few role models to follow. Many working couples with small children have five careers between them: two as nurturers, two as employees, and one as a married couple. The stresses of being "Supermom" and "Superdad" are present. The stereotype of the noninvolved male, the often unspoken social bias of the mother who leaves her baby when it is not absolutely necesssary, and the stigma of homemaking as rewarding work still exist. All of these are issues of the day, yet by 1990 it is predicted that 75 percent of children will have both parents working outside of the home.[17]

Working mothers do not spend as many hours at home tasks as women who stay at home. Unfortunately, even when both parents work, the domestic tasks frequently are not shared equally. Although this imbalance is improving, it still means added responsibility for the mother. In 1950, 30 percent of the work force was comprised of women; in 1979 it had grown to 42 percent with 75 percent of divorced, separated, and widowed women holding jobs. Of women with spouses and children under 18 (including mothers with preschool children), 58 percent now work. The rate for working mothers has risen faster than any other segment in the work force and continues to increase.[18]

There are many implications for family life with so many women employed. In the United States 55 percent of children have working mothers. Research shows that with a higher percentage of educated women, there are economic benefits to both the employer and employee. With rising inflation rates and in families of lower income levels, women need to work or believe they do to have a margin for security.[19] With two parents working, children are more likely to be cared for by someone outside the family or to be unsupervised after school.

Although many families find it necessary to have two paychecks to survive, more and more children are being raised by only one of their parents. At one time, under English Common Law, the father was given absolute rights over both wife and children. U.S. courts now ordinarily award children to the mother in custody disputes. There are, however, a growing number of exceptions to this arrangement as some children are raised by their fathers or parents are awarded joint custody. It is a fact, however, that since 1970 the number of female-headed families has increased by 97 percent.[20]

One of the most detrimental aspects for the single parent mother is the deterioration of her economic position. Many have difficulty reentering the job market while others work jobs with inadequate wages to support a family. About one in three female-headed families lives in poverty as compared to one in eighteen households with two parents.[21]

In 1984, of the 7.3 million families living below the poverty line, 3.8 million were single parent families, and 3.5 million of these were families headed by a female. The poverty level for a family of four in 1964 was $3000 and in 1984 it was $10,609. If a person were paid at the current minimum wage of $3.35 an hour, she would make $6,968 a year. Although equal pay is a *concept* accepted by many, the feminization of poverty is a fact. Estimates in 1984 have shown that women earn 64 percent less than men.[22] In that same year more that 75 percent of all poor were either adult women or children under 18. More than one in five young people live below the poverty line, and these figures more than double for minorities. The United States has become the first society in history in which persons are more likely to be poor if they are young rather than old. Children have displaced the elderly as the poorest age group. Although less than 27 percent of the total population, children comprise 40 percent of the poor.[23]

These figures do not show the number of unmarried women of all ages having children. Births to single women increased by more than 90 percent between 1970 and 1980.[24] Many of these single women are teenagers. One report indicates the rate of teen pregnancy for youngsters between 15 and 19 is 96 per 1000. The United States is the only developed nation reporting increased birth rates in this age group.[25] Children born to teenagers often have lower birth weight and health problems related to diet and prenatal care.

Despite the many pressures—such as the burden of two jobs and the struggle for economic survival—the single parent is much more visible today. Many feel that single parenthood has its rewards. Primarily, there is relief from marital conflict, an increase in self esteem from the ability

to manage work and family life, and a feeling of independence. Many enjoy a closer relationship with their children. For some families, however, the only means of income is subsidy such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children and food stamps.[26]

Family mobility also affects American children. In the United States a child moves twice as often as his or her European counterpart. About one-fifth of American families move annually, and they are more often families with young children.[27]A Harris survey of 1500 family members found a 65 percent agreement rate with the expectation that to get ahead on the job one must be willing to move.[28] The nuclear unit of parent and child often finds itself far from relatives or long-time friends. Since World War II the number of families moving has soared. Friendships are hard to find, as is a sense of community. Packard suggests that a correlation exists between an area's mobility rate and its divorce rate.

Another major factor affecting family stability is the rate of divorce in the United States. The number of children affected by divorce has more than tripled in the last thirty years.[29] The risk of living in a broken home by age 16 has remained relatively stable in this century because of the balance between parental death in the early 1900s and the increasing rate of homes broken by divorce or separation in the last twenty years.[30] Figures now show that nearly one out of every three marriages in the United States ends in divorce. Estimates project that four out of every ten children born in the decade between 1970 and 1980 will spend part of their childhood in a one-parent family.[31] Any breakup of the family unit causes problems and pain for those concerned, especially children. Divorce is second only to death of a spouse or parent in creating stress.[32]

With more single parents, working mothers, and divorced families, children are being separated from parents at an earlier age. Child care experts are unsure and often disagree about the effects of early separation, especially about the length of time involved in the attachment and bonding process. Some feel it can be as short as three or four months. For others the necessary time period is as long as two or three years for children to feel secure in the family unit and to develop the foundation for learning and loving.

Such diversity of opinion is indicative of child-care theory in general. Since World War II the boom in the number of experts and theories of how to raise a better child has produced volumes of research and advice but no agreement on the description of the ideal child. Some experts have stressed using scientific techniques in child rearing while others advocate doing things the instinctive natural way. Some advisers have insisted that discipline is necessary for a child to understand the

limits of acceptable behavior. Other experts claim that loving negotiation is more effective in promoting prosocial behavior. While the cognitive development of the child was considered the most significant aspect of the maturation process by some, other researchers have been preoccupied with emotional development. Martha Wolfenstein's analysis of baby care literature from the years between 1920 and 1950 observed the shift from considering the baby as a "depraved soul" that needed to be taught to be sociable to a view of the child as a source of enjoyment who is neutral on moral issues. This lack of consensus among experts has led one researcher to label child-care theory as "an indecisive graveyard of brief enthusiasms."[33]

Two nineteenth-century theorists have had a great influence on child development since World War II. Sigmund Freud emphasized emotional, psychoanalytical, and environmental aspects of childhood and ego structure. His approach led parents to replace worries over disease with the prevention of psychical pathology.[34] The other major figure, Jean Piaget, suggested that development was divided into different periods, each with a definable set of skills to be mastered. Both Piaget and Freud have been followed by other philosophers, educators, and researchers who contradict and confound issues related to the development of the young child. Changes in thirty years have shifted from advocating a strictly timed feeding schedule to feeding on demand; from spanking to talking out confrontations; from breast feeding and natural childbirth to baby bottles and heavy medication. It takes a strong minded parent to heed the advice of Dr. Spock, first given in 1946 in chapter 1 of *The Common Sense Book of Baby and Child Care*:

> The more people have studied different methods of bringing up children the more they have come to the conclusion that what good mothers and fathers instinctively feel like doing for their babies is the best after all.

Challenges of the Information Age

Many recent studies commissioned by both public and private sector agencies point to the need for bolstering the American family. Economic and social concerns as diverse as corporate personnel policies and health care priorities often directly relate to whether an individual family unit will or will not survive.

With so many more women in the work force, for instance, the issue of child care is a factor which has not only on-the-job productivity implications for the employer but also long term health, educational, and fiscal concerns for the employee as well. At present, the United

States has licensed day-care facilities for just a fraction of the young children whose parents work. Many more youngsters are cared for in unregulated situations varying from those supervised by a family member other than one of the parents in the child's own home, to an unrelated adult taking in three or four children on a regular basis. The quality of these programs is often hard to determine, but many have profound impact on young children. One research study indicated that children who attended low quality facilities from infancy, when tested at ages three and four, were more aggressive, impulsive, and egocentric. Other studies have found some veterans of day-care can be less socialized, more physically active, and less cooperative with adults.[35]

For lower income families there are other problems as well. The Children's Defense Fund reports that in 1982, 57 percent of three and four year olds in families of medium to high incomes attended some preschool program while only 28 percent of those children in lower income families attended.[36] Other industrialized countries have developed provisions for day-care, but in the United States, few employers seriously consider assistance with child-care facilities. Reformers suggest not only paid leave for both parents, but disability leaves for illness and family crises as well as flexible work plans for parents.[37]

Many conditions of contemporary life lead to additional stress on already over-burdened families. Causal relationships are difficult to determine, but it is a fact that child abuse is increasing in the United States. Reported figures in 1976 showed approximately ten cases of abuse or neglect per 1000 children. By 1984, 1,727,000 cases were reported or approximately 27 cases per 1000 children. The figures represent an increase of 158 percent in just eight years and, it must be noted, account only for reported cases of neglect and abuse.[38]

Two principle sources for data about abuse are hospital and community agency reports and research surveys. Many question whether the numbers show an actual increase in cases of abuse or changes in reporting practices. Most researchers have concluded that the instance of abuse to children is underestimated, however, and that reported figures are low. Many parents do not take the child for medical treatment or change hospitals and doctors to avoid suspicion. Many injuries go undetected or physicians fail to report them to a central agency. While lower income, poorly educated persons may seem to be more abusive, middle and upper class parents, having more privacy in living conditions, can be more deceptive and hide abusive behavior to children by going to private physicians.

Stress is often related to abusive behavior. Researchers have identified nearly 44 percent of abusive behavior cases related to health problems, 47 percent to economic or living conditions, and, overlapping both categories, nearly 71 percent of cases related to family interaction.[39] Parke and Collmer analyzed findings in child abuse research to determine some common elements. They found that most abusive adults had aggressive, physical punishment in their own childhood. Violence is often reflected in family interactions where physical punishment is a widely used disciplinary technique. Unemployment is also a factor in child abuse and other family violence. Because the parent is home more, and has a loss of status and income, feelings of hostility are often directed toward children. Abusers tend to be isolated and very mobile. They also tend to prevent their children from developing relationships with others. The abusers often were abused themselves and probably learned the pattern through imitation. Abusive parents are often inconsistent in employing discipline and attempt to justify, minimize, or shift the blame for their violent actions.[40]

Although more is known about general causes of abusive behavior, not much has been done about prevention. The most pressing needs appear to be how to identify and assess all aspects of the problem. Research needs to be done to determine if patterns exist in abusive families. All classes of persons need to be examined. Programs being conducted now need to be evaluated. As Parke and Collmer state "only through better understanding of the problem will we be better able to protect our children."[41]

While some parents abuse and neglect their children, other youngsters are self-abusive. Among adolescents, suicide has become the third leading cause of death. The rate of suicide since 1985 in the 15-19 age group has tripled, although it now seems to be leveling off.[42] Various researchers have blamed this incredible increase on everything from the Vietnam War to drugs, television, and stress. Others contend that adolescents have little emotional support because of family mobility, divorce, and loss of family contact time.

Many agencies and organizations are attempting to help families cope with the stress of daily living. Sometimes the system itself shows strain; American public education in particular has been the focus of much recent criticism. Public attention was caught by the report *A Nation at Risk,* but the document was only one of several pointing to deficiencies in teachers, classroom practice, and lack of parental involvement in the educational process. It is not only the availability of public education but also the universal concern about its quality that

represent a major shift in the American conscience. While only about 25 percent of the grandparents of children born in 1955 finished high school, about half of the children's parents did. By 1982 nearly 86 percent of children will receive high school diplomas, and a majority of these will attend college at least for awhile. "The average school child in 1982, unlike that of 50 years ago is likely to recieve at least an adequate education—if the youngster remains in class."[43]

The National Assessment of Educational Progress in recent surveys has registered a decline for reading scores as well as math and science scores. There is a widening gap between different socioeconomic levels, leaving the poor farther and farther behind. Some teachers suggest that today's child lacks motivation, imagination, and interest in learning. On the other hand, educator Ronald Edmond identifies five characteristics which have been effective in producing high levels of learning: (1) teachers who have high expectations of their students; (2) an active leader as principal; (3) emphasis on basic skills; (4) standardized tests to measure skills; and (5) an orderly environment. Such a set of factors places the emphasis on the role of teacher as model and mentor and suggests that the family has greater and greater expectations of institutions outside the nuclear unit of parent and child.[44]

Within our Anglo-American legal system, children are still regarded as property of the parents or the state if the parents are not present. Parents were given these rights "out of the conviction that children lacked the wisdom to be effective advocates for themselves"; the concept is termed "parens patriae."[45] The courts do have the power to control and regulate society's concern relating children to such issues as abuse, placement, custody, adoption, and juvenile offenses. Within the legal system, however, there is an obvious reluctance to intervene between parent and child. The Carnegie Council reported an apparent dichotomy in the present family law between breaking up families and efforts to protect children abandoned by parents who cannot cope. Without skilled advocates and lawyers with special training, children will not have their rights upheld. Children need to be protected when neglected or abused by families; when assigned to institutional care; when declared status offenders (cases in which rebellious children are turned over to the juvenile courts); when disagreements arise between parents about health, schooling, and work; and when in need of protection in schools and from environmental or health hazards.[46]

The status of children before the law has also changed dramatically. In 1950, 170 persons or .004 percent of the population under fifteen were arrested for serious crime. The laws themselves as well as reporting

procedures have changed in the last thirty years so that in absolute terms the figures are difficult to comprehend or compare. For instance, between 1950 and 1979 the adult crime rate tripled, but the rate of serious crime committed by children increased 11,000 percent. Less serious crimes committed by children increased 8300 percent.[47] Even in relative terms, however, it is staggering to consider that a city or town in 1950 reporting twenty serious crimes committed by youngsters under fifteen would in 1979 be reporting 2200 such crimes. The link between such statistics and disrupted, at-risk family situations is not hard to make.

The United States is the only industrialized country which does not provide a subsidy to *all* families with children. A helter-skelter approach to assistance to families pervades programs at all levels. More than twenty federal agencies provide a variety of services to families through nearly 260 different programs, but there is no coordination and little communication among agencies or programs. In 1938, director of the U.S. Children's Bureau, Grace Abbott wrote: "All children are dependent, but only a relatively small number are dependent on the state." The situation remains the same today. Help is provided to families on a federal, state, or local level only when there is trouble, not when that trouble might be prevented.[48]

The issues facing the continued growth and healthy development of American families are complex, and solutions to problems often become problems themselves. Advice from experts differs; research findings are sometimes contradictory; and grandmothers with a cup of tea and a word of comfort or concern are often too far away to help. Many times agencies and institutions in the business of service appear to serve themselves first and clients second. Yet Daniel Patrick Moynihan's proclamation in *Family and Nation* is echoed by many: "The future of a society may be forecast by how it cares for its young."[49]

Libraries as agencies which work with young people must be aware of factors affecting those they seek to serve. Children's services in public libraries need to be reexamined in the light of needs not only of the children but their families. Renewed efforts with child-care agencies and schools may need to be instituted as families come to shift more responsibility to agencies and institutions outside the nuclear unit.

A program recently developed in Pittsburgh serves as a case in point. In an effort to encourage families to read aloud to young children, a packet of books was distributed to adults bringing babies to the county health department clinics. As the packets, which also contained information about the local public library, were distributed, project personnel talked to adults about the benefits of reading aloud to chil-

dren and suggested a few simple techniques. Many families acknowledged that they rarely read to their children, but most seemed willing to try the books. Over the months that followed, response of both the parents and Health Department staff indicated a real enthusiasm for the project. One nurse commented that on home visits children would often greet her at the door with one of the books, demanding a story or wanting to show off some special interest. Parents told her that bedtime was easier with a book. Here is the verbatim transcription of the young mother of Donta (twenty-one months):

> Sometimes Donta will wake up in the morning and the first thing he do is grab a book. He can sit for at least half hour without moving and he seems careful as he turn pages and most of the time he never misuse them. When he does he get upset and shows me.

The transcription does not even begin to convey the enthusiasm and pride of this young woman as she talked with the project staff.

In a follow-up study, six months after the initial contact, the majority of the participants were continuing to read to their children. Very few, however, had any contact with the public library. Many claimed to be buying their own books. Some were probably rereading the original gift books, but there was little interest expressed in the resources of the public library.

These parents were often not working or their children were cared for by nearby family members. The interest in their children's welfare was evident, yet these parents do not see the public library as part of that process. The possibilities for public library service to these families are enormous and challenge the traditional strengths of children's services. Librarians are masters of knowing stories that move listeners and readers, that promote inquiry, that allow a chance to step back and view ourselves and others in a new light. Public libraries all over the country have the opportunity to break the cycle of illiteracy and to intervene in the educational process.

There is growing evidence that families and children face a multiplicity of problems as we end one century and move into another. Parents want the best for their children but sometimes create tensions and stress in that search. The system of education, judicial structure, social agencies and institutions may be geared to a different pattern of family life. The mission of the public library to provide access to the world's civilization is still a viable and laudable goal; the means to that end needs considerable review. As Nobel Peace Prize Laureate, Bernard Lawn said, "The world was not left to us by our parents, but lent to us by our children."

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Reaching All Children: A Public Library Dilemma

ALICE PHOEBE NAYLOR

Introduction

ONE CAN DESCRIBE the child population of interest to the public library in several ways. The first way is to consider those who come to the library individually and voluntarily. Other ways include those who come to the library under group sponsorship such as a school class or day-care center, or to whom the library carries its services outside the library, and those who do not come to the library at all. The population may be described in terms of age. The Association for Library Service to Children officially designates the target population as individuals from "preschool through junior high."[1] Others define child library users by age level—currently birth through twelve years. Often the population of children is described in terms of economic class, race, disability, family status, group membership, or an atypical situation (unwed mothers, juvenile delinquents). This article looks at professional literature and opinion over the past twenty-five years and shows that all these ways of viewing the child population have influenced children's services. Underlying all approaches to creating public library services for children is the strongly held belief that library service is for all children.

One hundred years ago the best of public library administrators opened their doors to children, though to none younger than twelve years old. William I. Fletcher welcomed those "young minds of peculiar gifts and precocious development."[2] William H. Brett took books to children "through the schools...deposit stations in stores, factories,

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settlement houses, churches, fire stations, and telephone stations."[3] For Caroline Burnite, the first director of childrens services for the Cleveland Public Library, "the whole concept of library work with children stemmed from her own deep sense of moral and social responsibility toward both the individual and society."[4] The moral fervor of the 1960s at which time this study begins, imbued children's librarians anew with the commitment to reach all populations of children.

In 1986 Carolyn Field writes: "The ideal is to expose every child from birth to the joys of reading at the library, in the schools, day care centers, etc. through personal contact, training of parents and teachers and other adults."[5] The movement toward this concept of population to be served accounts for much of the activity of public library children's librarians over the past twenty-five years.

In general that effort is beset by painful dilemmas. The first is bittersweet. Having made amazing progress toward the goal of reaching all children, children's librarians now find that their parent institutions have coopted them, their services, and their statistics. Worse yet, several library education programs have dropped specialty courses for children's librarians entirely. The second dilemma is complex. Enormous conflict exists for children's librarians who agree with the current emphasis on serving adults who serve children, but are already overworked and overwhelmed serving child users in the library. Is it possible to do both without a radical change in the status, quality, and number of children's librarians? The third dilemma poses an equally profound challenge to public library service. Libraries remain basically purveyors of print media in an age when the typical child spends an average of 2000 hours a year watching television. Is the library prepared to serve a future population of uniform children[6] who would rather view than read?

This article will present data from professional literature and from interviews with key persons in the profession that describe populations of concern to children's services over the past twenty-five years. The data pose the need for a clearer definition of child populations served and suggest the reasons for the earlier described dilemmas.

An Analysis of Professional Literature

Several sources provided information about trends in service to distinctive populations of children during the past twenty-five years. The author conducted a content analysis of entries in *Library Literature* which referred to children's library services and populations served.[7]

The percentage of article space devoted to children's services in nine professional journals and the specific populations discussed in those articles during seven of the past twenty-five years is presented.[8] Fifty leading professionals in children's services and public library administration responded to a questionnaire or interview which included three questions: What are ideal goals for children's services and are they being reached? What are the traditional services provided to children, and why are they "traditional"? What barriers to change exist within the public library? A review of the literature helps tie the data and opinions to existing knowledge and theory.

Library Literature: The Index

The appendix displays the number of entries in *Library Literature* from 1960 to 1985 under the subject headings selected for analysis. The entries for service to specific populations appear in inconsistent fashion in the index, making assessment extremely difficult. Under the heading of Children's Library Services, subheads of GIFTED and PRE-SCHOOL appear, the latter only since 1982. The same subheadings appeared under PUBLIC LIBRARIES—SERVICES TO since 1974. Services to handicapped children are entered under HANDICAPPED, LIBRARY SERVICES FOR and CHILDREN'S READING PROJECT—HANDICAPPED CHILDREN. Most of the entries for specialized populations are entered under the PUBLIC LIBRARIES—SERVICES TO heading. Many of those articles are exclusively about the activities of children's services. Many of the articles under CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES are about school libraries. Children's services are inextricably bound to those provided by the public library and *Library Literature* does not make it easy to distinguish the unique contribution of the specialty.

By comparison, measures of the number of articles in the professional literature show professional interest in the general topics of CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES, CHILDREN'S READING, STORY HOURS AND STORY TELLING, and SUMMER PROJECTS as relatively stable over the years. The count of articles indicates that handicapped children were of concern to writers only since 1967 although the service began long before that date. However, services to handicapped children did not appear as a separate heading in the index until 1980. Services to preschool were not indexed as such in the literature until 1974. Preschool story hours have been a traditional service of the library since the 1930s[10] but articles about them appear under the

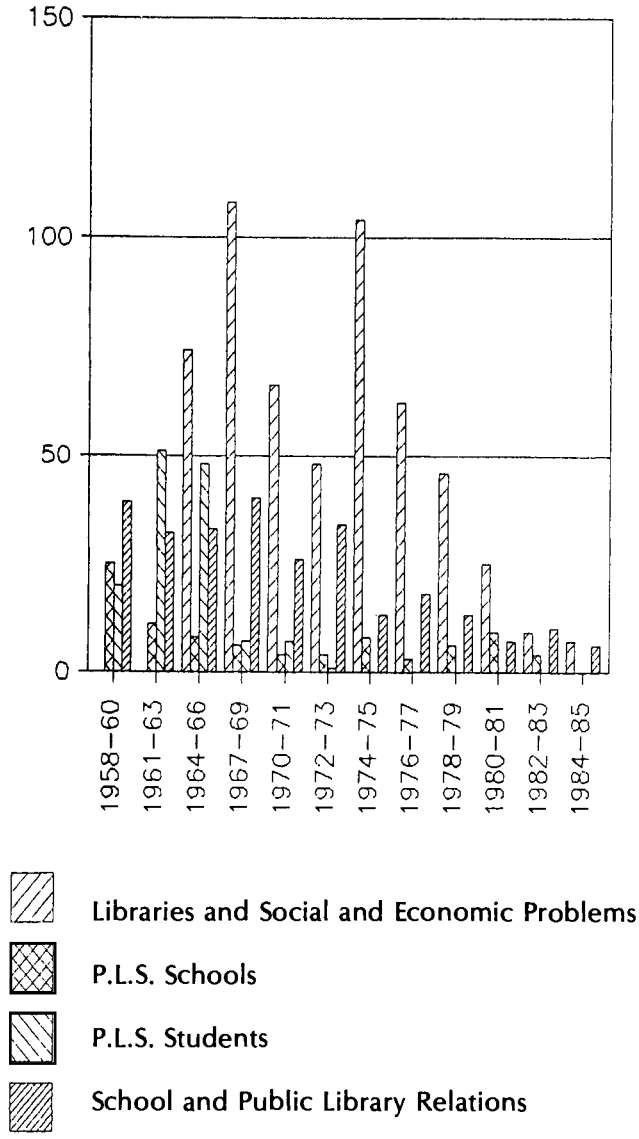
more generic headings of STORY HOURS AND STORY TELLING. *Library Literature* does not include "parents" as a subhead until 1978. No subhead, PARENTS, appears under CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES, yet much of this service emanates from the children's services staff. Early in the 1960s, articles were indexed more frequently by library function than by the population served. Since 1967 only slightly more attention is given to specific populations.

Graph 1 illustrates the number of articles under several subject headings about public libraries and schools. The articles which appeared under the subject heading PUBLIC LIBRARY—SERVICES TO: SCHOOLS reported activities of both young adult and children's librarians. The graph shows that professional writing about schools and public libraries reached its peak in 1960 and then tapered off sharply. The number of articles under the heading PUBLIC LIBRARIES—SERVICES TO: STUDENTS peaked in 1963 and disappeared in 1971. Authors wrote about school and public library relations throughout this period but most heavily during the 1960s.

Discord over public library-school relationships persists in rankling the profession although the issues in conflict change over the years.[11] In the 1960s the "student problem" was how to cope with teenagers (post-war baby boomers) pouring into the library. Neither resources nor policies were in place to meet the demand. One contingent of professionals cheered the increase in public library use; another chastised the schools for not meeting the needs of students and therefore being responsible for the bedlam which reigned in the public library. The late sixties and seventies were the affluent years for school libraries, so public library use by students waned as did interest in the subject.

Even the furor over the 1970 position paper from the New York Commission on Education suggesting the abolishment of public library service to children did not make a large showing in professional periodicals. In the 1980s, SCHOOL AND PUBLIC LIBRARY RELATIONSHIPS is the only subject heading which continues to be used in the index.

Graph 2 compares coverage of specific minority groups and those indexed under MINORITIES. The only extensive coverage occurred during the early 1970s. Articles about Spanish Americans continued throughout the seventies to a lesser degree. As the graph indicates, few articles about service to minority, ethnic, or disadvantaged populations appeared during this period. Some attention was given to services to blacks annually for twenty-five years; however, no more than ten articles



Graph 1. Number of Articles Indexed 1960-85 about Public Libraries and Schools

appeared in any three-year-period despite the national focus on black life in America.

Eight articles appeared between 1958 to 1969 that discussed juvenile delinquency within the library. Eleven years later one article appeared about how best to provide library service to juvenile delinquents—an interesting illustration of change in attitude about populations served.

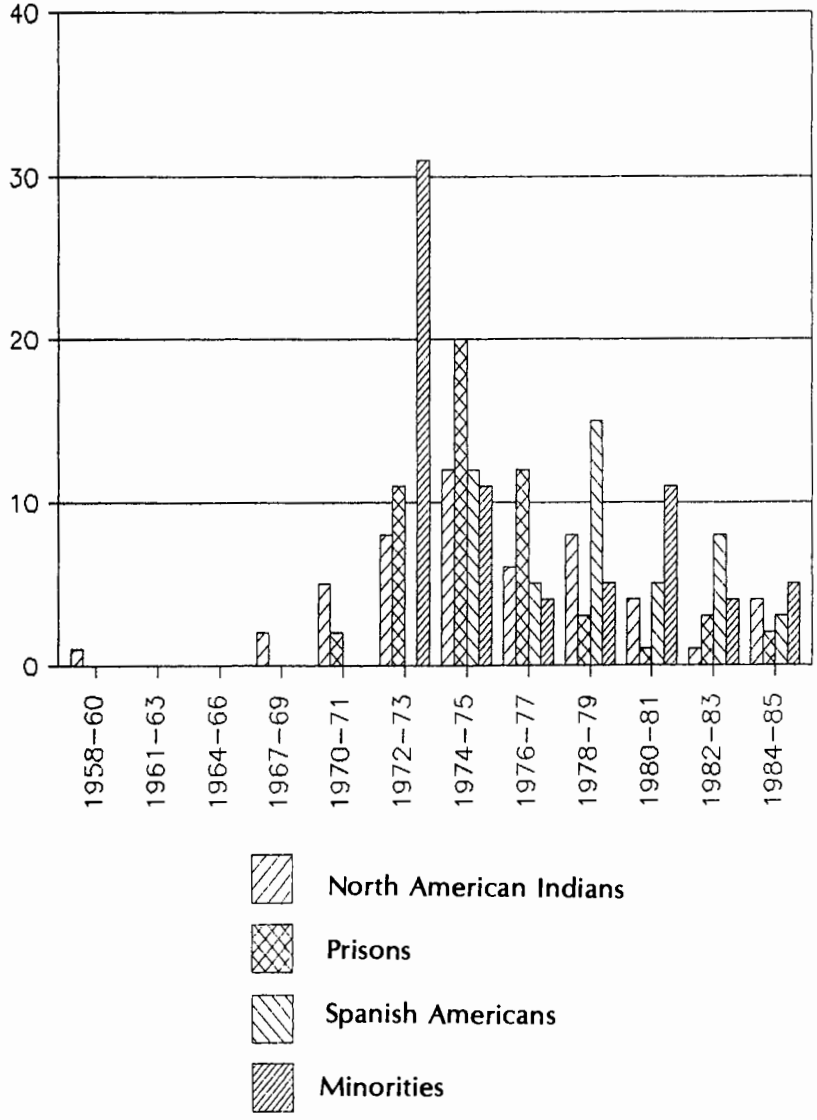
Trends in interest about specific minority groups, disadvantaged, and the poor are evident throughout the period. Articles about libraries, social, and economic problems peaked during 1967-69 and again in 1974-75 and then disappeared. Although these trends may indicate that librarians are in tune with the times, they may also show a disheartening lack of in-depth analysis of services needed by specific populations. The literature of the profession, in this way, may be comparable to the mass media that uses its limited space to highlight new issues more than to continue coverage of old issues, even unresolved ones.[12]

Graph 3 shows that articles about preschool children appeared in *Library Literature* in 1974 and were indexed under the headings PUBLIC LIBRARIES—SERVICE TO: PRESCHOOL CHILDREN. In 1982, articles began to appear also under the heading CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES—PRESCHOOL CHILDREN. A listing for PARENTS, indexed under PUBLIC LIBRARIES—SERVICES TO, has appeared since 1978-79.

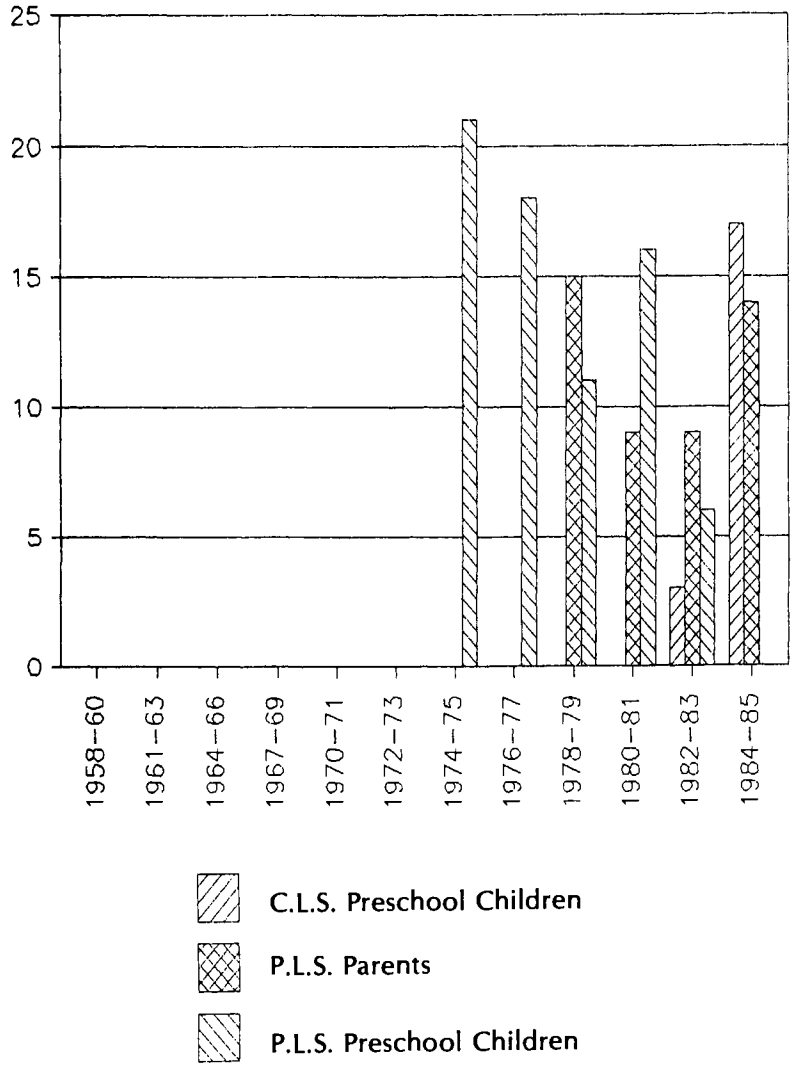
Graph 4 compares the number of articles on other topics related to children's services. Numbers of articles about evaluation and finance of children's services are minimal. Entries under the heading CHILDREN'S AUDIOVISUAL SERVICES were most numerous during the seventies and then dropped off. CHILDREN'S READING PROJECTS were of interest throughout the period, reaching new heights in the 1980s some feel because of the current criticism of education. Services to handicapped children were rarely discussed.

In summary, professional writing about child populations served by the public library is scarce and when concern is shown for specific populations of children, the concern is a temporary response to outside influences more than it is to any fundamental change in the goals of the library.

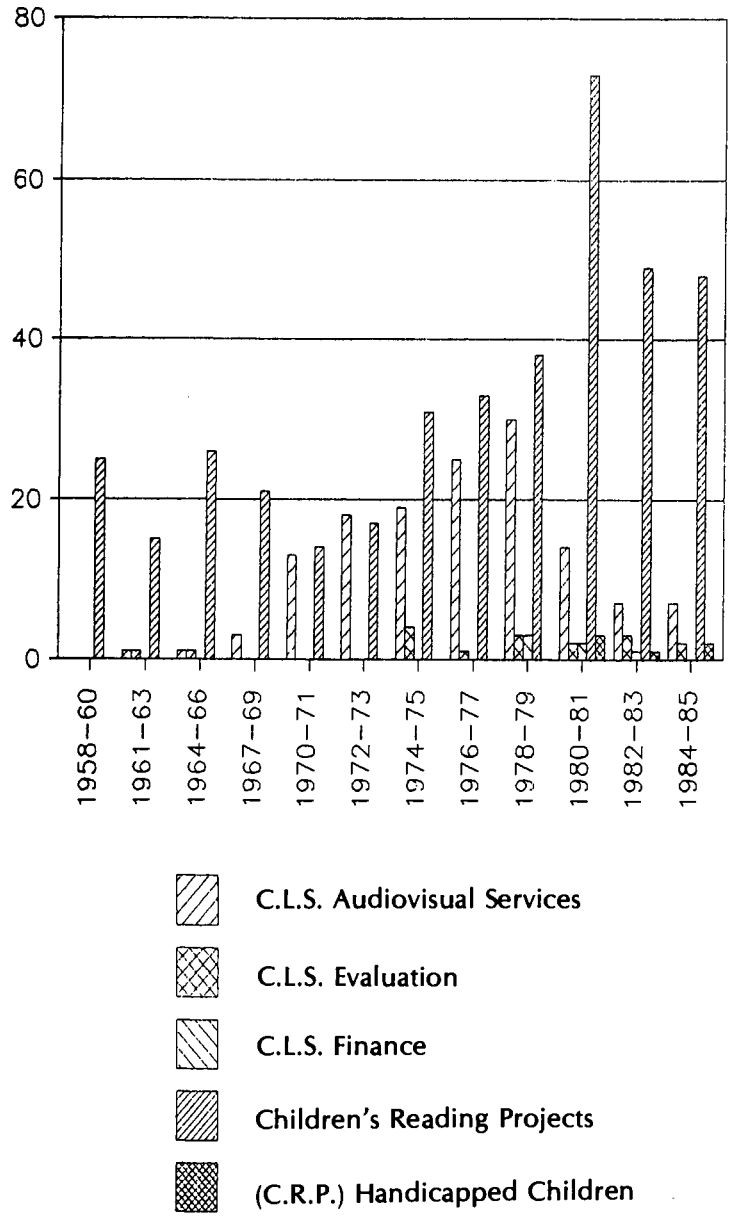
It is important to note that because of inconsistencies and lack of specificity in indexing, *Library Literature* indicates only that children's services were viewed as part of the total service picture of public libraries. How much of the total picture was painted by children's services is impossible to ascertain in this way.



Graph 2. Number of Articles Indexed 1960-85 about Specific Minority Groups



Graph 3. Number of Articles Indexed 1960-85 about Preschool Children



Graph 4. Number of Articles Indexed 1960-85 about Other Topics Related to Children's Services

Professional Periodicals

Graph 5 illustrates the results of an analysis of *School Library Journal, Top of the News, Wilson Library Bulletin,* and *Public Libraries* between 1960 and 1984. The data indicate minimal coverage of any aspect of children's services. Articles about books and other materials, young adult services, and school libraries were more numerous but not included in this tabulation. Most of the included articles were descriptive of services but not of populations of children being served.

A comparison of the coverage of minority group populations shows that articles on service to the disabled, Hispanic, etc., consisted chiefly of bibliographies. The author also conducted an analysis of five state library association journals from the five bellwether states designated by Naisbett. [13] The percentage of annual coverage by the journals of minority populations served, in most instances, was minor.

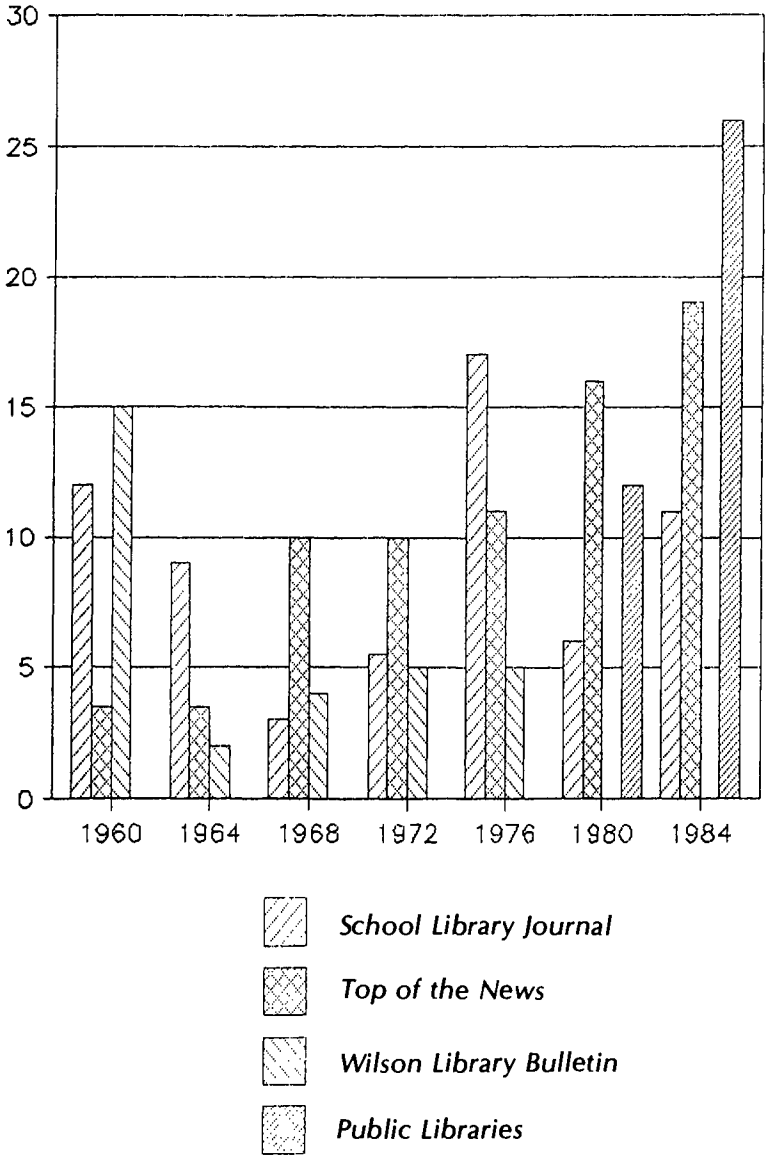
The almost nonexistence of articles on individual populations served looms as the important finding of this study. It was hoped that the number of articles published over the two and a half decades would illustrate the changes in service to various populations. Instead, the results show that little was published in the professional literature concerning populations being served by the public library and even less appeared about the specific efforts of children's specialists.

Regular columns in the journals were not considered in this analysis, although columns are a source of current news about activities primarily in professional organizations. A case in point is Diana Young's column in *Public Libraries* which began in 1976 and highlights children's programs in public libraries on the "cutting edge" across the country.

Discussion of Populations Served

The earlier discussed data and responses from key professionals around the country are used here to discuss trends in services to target populations identified by public library children's services.

What are ideal goals for children's services and are they being met? One respondent expressed the belief that no discrepancy existed between ideal and actual services. Another expressed the frustrations of many in this way: "There is too much to do and not enough time and staff to accomplish it all. We are so busy with the immediacies of reference service and programs, that we have difficulty addressing the fundamental tasks of collection building, outreach, planning, and evaluating."[14]



Graph 5. Percentage of Space Devoted to Children's Services

If Gilles is right—and many agree that she is—the children served are those who come into the library.

Which children do come to the library? "There has been no break in the connection of middle class, white, professional to the library—the habit is handed down from one generation to another."[15] True as this statement may be, other children were drawn into the library during the 1960s. Don Roberts was on the streets of Venice, California and later Minneapolis, Minnesota, attracting all types of children with different kinds of media. Stephen James was walking the streets of Cleveland like the Pied Piper leading young people with questions to the place where they could be answered. The "High John" project in Maryland was an attempt to provide a library "place" for residents of the black community. During the sixties, librarians did try to attract "other" children: blacks, Hispanics, the poor, and other minority groups beyond the "traditional" library users. However, the lasting effect seems to have been minimal.

Few of the respondents to the questionnaire referred to nonwhite, ethnic, or disadvantaged children; however, one reported statement on mission included "to serve diverse population segments equally with a variety of informational and recreational materials that reflect their unique needs." Another individual stated that the library's mission was to serve "new populations with different cultural backgrounds [who] desperately need materials from their own culture. We have set aside funds and purchased materials but they are not enough."[16] Milwaukee Public Library's prime goal is to serve special groups—disabled, ethnic, and minority. Children are designated as a special group and are not mentioned within the goals to reach other special groups.[17]

Weibel[18] attempts to analyze the characteristics of library outreach over this same period of library history and in 1976 stated that "outreach" was no longer in vogue.[19] Her analysis, like that of many others,[20] gives no mention of children's services. The question goes unanswered as to whether children's and adult services fit the same pattern or whether children's services simply were not given consideration as possibly being distinctive. Note, for example, that Kingsbury[21] proposes goals for children's services and recommends "aggressive outreach" and the need to reach the "nonuser." Also, Willett[22] cites studies that credit children's services with reaching a more representative population by class and race than do adult services.

The word outreach was used frequently in the responses of children's specialists. However, the change in priority given to needs assessments of disadvantaged people is also clear in responses such as that of

Gilles mentioned earlier. Weibel quotes Clara Jones, former director of the Detroit Public Library, "libraries can no longer depend on reading guidance as the only major *adult* activity [emphasis added]." The service needed, she adds, is "securing direction through the maze of agencies and organizations."[23] As children do not direct their own path through the "maze of organizations," children's librarians in the 1980s have assumed an advocacy role in working with persons in those agencies who are responsible for children.

In the 1970s the issue of survival of public library services to children first appeared on the scene. The New York State commissioner of education issued a position paper suggesting that the schools take overall library service to children and leave public libraries for adults. Social responsibility gave way to *presumed* fiscal responsibility and arguments such as duplication of services and saving money were used to support the commission's position. Pandemonium erupted within the public library. Children's services specialists were challenged to define the value and unique characteristics of their services. The defense of public library children's services rested in large part on the definition of its service to individual child users and the need to begin the lifelong learning process at the youngest possible age. Though a long time in coming, the development of output measures of public library service can be traced partially to this challenge. However, their application to children's services have not provided as yet clear definitions of populations served and unserved.

The New York proposal was successfully defeated. Still, school libraries had developed improved, if not adequate, materials collections and services. Public library interest in school-public library cooperation centered on how schools could help direct children to the public library. Dyer concludes that hope for positive results from cooperative efforts is misplaced, not because school librarians and children's librarians are communicating ineffectively, but rather because of the uncertain future of children's services. "Public library directors are less than enthusiastic about the future of children's services, and they are obviously in positions to influence budget allocations."[24] Gerhardt [25] reports that school superintendents and public library directors have made no attempt to establish lines of communication between themselves nor support others working to provide library services to students.

During the 1980s a process has begun which may succeed in establishing the public library as an agency serving all children. Once again children's services specialists are developing alliances with school librarians. In Long's history of children's services, a report of an edito-

rial in *Library Journal* in 1895 states that through the school "children may be reached most easily, most directly, and most effectively."[26] Today, children's librarians are continuing to make the traditional school visits and to invite classes to visit the public library, a direct service to children. They are also creating linkages with educators and a wide variety of other professionals who have greater knowledge about child development and who are in direct contact with children on a regular basis. This networking is creating new, adult clientele for children's services. The purposes for networking include:

—to educate other professionals about the value of incorporating library services with their services;
—to inform children about the existence and services of the public library by communicating through the myriad institutional structures, including the family, under which all children live;
—to extend the knowledge base of librarians by working in consort with other professionals who serve children; and
—to coordinate programs among all agencies serving children.

The need for this association is clear. "[Children's] librarians have begun to feel confident that they can tackle any kind of problem—teaching reading, bibliotherapy, creative drama, etc.—whether or not they have any formal training. They are responding to needs they perceive in their patrons."[27] This confidence is gained partially through association and joint efforts with other professionals.

Another approach to defining populations of children is by age level. "Our concern is that we have no way to measure what goals we should have to reach the various age groups."[28] Educators and psychologists have posited several developmental theories which have influenced children's librarians' selection and programming policies in public libraries. The process of learning to read, never considered relevant to library education before, is now a prime concern of children's specialists. Connecticut, for example, established a Coalition on Literacy. Hektoen[29] reports that the leaders of the effort had "forgotten" that the public library served children and invited the library to participate only after being reminded of the library and of the literacy needs of children as well as those of adults.

The current widespread public library emphasis on service to preschool children stems from recent information on literacy and early childhood development. Smardo[30] has made a major contribution to the profession through her studies of early childhood development needs and library services. At the Dallas Public Library, Smardo implements

her findings and continues research to improve library service to this age group. Similar efforts are needed for all age groups.

The ideal age at which to begin reading to children is no longer believed to be three to five years but at birth or before. Virtually every response to the questionnaire of this study referred to the necessity to expand public library service to "toddlers" and preschoolers.

Baltimore County Director Charles Robinson states. "Anything preschoolers want they get [from his library]. If it's twenty copies of *Cat in the Hat*, we get it. There is no limit."[31] No other public agency serves preschoolers, says Robinson. "It is very, very important—political gold to the future of libraries. The reason we are funded is an emotional one, based on providing services to children and students." The basis for Robinson's priority is the population which has the greatest need as well as the greatest future potential for maintaining public support for the library.

Robinson was able to state the percentage of his community which is of preschool age (14 percent), the largest identifiable population group known. He hopes that these favored preschoolers will grow up to be lifelong library users. The critics of Baltimore County are concerned that generalists, not specialists, are providing the service, but no one can quarrel with the priority the library gives to this age group.

The change in age level served and the new process of coalition building prompted many respondents to name parents as a major population to be served. In the 1960s parents were not welcome during story hour. Today librarians see themselves, in part, as role models for parents who have no experience in reading or storytelling to children.

On the other end of the age scale, many children's librarians have cut back their target population from eighth grade to age twelve. The influence of new theories in psychology and education resulting in the middle school concept calls for young adult materials and services to be offered to twelve to fourteen-year-olds.

Other populations mentioned by respondents were the institutionalized, handicapped, homebound, immigrants, migrants, latchkey children, unwed mothers, and children's organizations. The most frequently identified special population of children of the 1980s—in terms of atypical circumstances—was latchkey children. Children's librarians are responding to the needs of these clients by adjusting materials collection, program content, and hours of service. Several respondents, however, reported that latchkey children were described within their libraries as unwanted babysittng charges who were disruptive and noisy. Whatever the new conditions of child welfare, old arguments are

heard about noise and parent's responsibility not being the libraries' responsibility. It seems that service to these populations is assumed by children's services in spite of some resistance from other service areas in the library.

The latchkey child phenomenon is not new. In working class neighborhoods throughout this period of history, children were left on their own while parents worked. Although prior to the 1980s, children in "ghetto" and poor neighborhoods did seek out the public library to pass the time, librarians used other terms to describe them and their after-school activity in children's rooms. Currently, working mothers, or single parents of either gender, are common in middle-class communities, and the latchkey phenomenon has become institutionalized.

It is not clear how children's services librarians discover and draw new populations into the library. Can networking with other public agencies identify populations in need of library service? Are children's librarians, over time, able to identify a group of library users who have characteristics in common? Are the latchkey children using libraries representative of all classes and ethnic groups within the community? More information about this process would help future studies of populations served.

What are the traditional services and what makes them traditional? Respondents concurred on five traditional services for children: story hour, preschool story hour, reference and reader's advisory service, summer reading club, and a quality book collection. Most respondents felt that these services have not changed over the years except for the lowering of age level served.

Most responses defined the traditional services in terms of age level served. One person stated that "traditional" service before 1960 was to the white and middle class, but that after the sixties all classes and races were served. Another added that a more "diversified staff" from multicultural backgrounds helps libraries to come closer to the goal of reaching all children.

The unanimity among professional leaders that the above five services are traditional suggests that the traditional population served is literate. All of these traditional services began as book-related activities.

What are barriers to change within children's services? Some changes have taken place in the populations served over the past two and a half decades. The most lasting are in the age level of children served and the improved and increased networking with adults serving children.

Several respondents felt that children's services were being "used" by administrators to get media attention, political support, and better

budgets. They felt that the goals of children's services did not always benefit from serving political goals. Many of the respondents felt that public library administrators created the barriers to change. Limited budget, lack of trained librarians, shortened hours, and poor facilities were mentioned frequently. Several people mentioned the disinterest of library schools in recruiting students to children's librarianship and their continued lack of recognition of bachelor's degrees in education.

On the other hand, several strong statements were made in favor of generalists—all library staff being responsible for serving children. The "politicizing" of children's services may have happened none too soon to save public libraries from oblivion. Some say capitalizing on the service provided to children has maintained and will continue to maintain the public library. Baltimore County Public Library staff have raised book circulation and registration among adults and children, and they feel that the test of good service and survival is to reach a significant percentage of the population. Obtaining better budgets as a consequence of large numbers of users keeps the institution alive, says Robinson.

Conclusions

The last twenty-five years have been turbulent ones for children's services. Challenges have been made to the very existence of those services—the New York Commission's position paper to cancel children's services altogether; budget crises which have led administrators to cut back support; and the elimination of specialized children's personnel in many libraries and library schools. Several dilemmas continue to face children's services near the end of the twentieth century.

The first is bittersweet. Children's librarians have clung to the goal of reaching all children and have made reasonably admirable strides in that direction. Yet, within the institution and the profession, they and children remain second class participants. White presents a feminist view of the situation. "Things pertaining to adults have greater social status than things pertaining to children. (There also may be an element of sexism here. In both education and librarianship those who work with children are more likely to be women than are those who work with adults)."[32] White, like Robinson, believes public library directors are making a political (as well as an ethical) mistake in not recognizing the emotional appeal to the public and to politicians of serving children and students.

Children's librarians continue their efforts but are often flagellated by their own colleagues. Others recognize the reality: "If [children's]

librarians were seen as department heads and/or specialists, and the gap between their salaries and the higher administrative ones lessened, we might keep more good people in the profession. But it is partly up to us....''[33] Still others simply say if you can't beat them join them and they become adult librarians.

Libraries, of course, are not the only institutions to lag behind in the application of feminist theory to their operations. Harris,[34] a scholar of women's work, states: "Institutional discrimination can stem from the expectations, sometimes unconscious, that employers have of the work force, and culture and ideology can be socially learned. Both can color women's choices.''[35]

The second dilemma is complex and related to the first. Several respondents to the questionnaire used in this study were able to state that from 40 to 60 percent of the children in their communities were reached by the public library. As a result of these impressive figures, children's librarians are overwhelmed with the tasks to be performed. Perhaps the generalist concept is a viable answer. However, is it logical to discard the body of knowledge about child development, along with practices and theories about children's library services and literature without great consideration, debate, and equally proven alternatives? How do public libraries resolve the discrepancy between expanded services and decreases in numbers of children's librarians? How do they determine time and resource priorities between services to children in the library and to adults serving children outside the library?

The third dilemma arises from the characteristics of the population of children themselves. Several libraries stand out during this twenty-five-year-period for their exciting innovation and influence on the profession. It is already evident that Baltimore County is one. Hennepin County Public Library (HCPL) is another. However, their practice of giving other media formats equal billing with books has not influenced the rest of the country to the extent that the personnel practices of Baltimore County have. HCPL unquestionably has reached new populations with its media collection.[36]

Also during this same period mass media have taken over as the major source of story and information for American children. The publicity departments of large public libraries use the media and every popular culture figure available to entice children to come to the library.[37] This population of children is a radically different one from the one of twenty-five years ago. Its need for public library service may be as great, but its knowledge of media is far beyond that of their peers of a generation ago. The media reduce differences in values and interests

among its viewers. Children have much in common as they enter the twenty-first century. The differences in their ability to use and understand media are minimal compared to their differences in economic class and ability to read. What this means to children's services is not clear, but it may be the greatest challenge facing children's specialists at the end of the twentieth century.

Appendix

Library Literature Subject Headings: 1958-1985

		58-60	61-3	64-6	67-9	70-1	72-3	74-5	76-7	78-9	80-1	82-3	84-5
1.0	ARCHITECTURE AND BUILDING--CHILDREN'S ROOMS----------	0	6	7	1	1	1	1	0	4	2	0	1
2.0	CHILDREN AND THE LIBRARY--(in libraries)----------	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3.0	CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES----------	35	34	42	37	24	22	30	57	57	38	15	23
3.1	ACTIVITY PROJECTS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	29	26	29
3.2	ADMINISTRATION----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	2	1	1	0
3.3	AIMS AND OBJECTIVES----------	0	1	0	1	1	2	5	4	6	3	6	4
3.4	ANECDOTES, FACETIAE, SATIRE----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	0	1
3.5	AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS----------	0	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.6	AUDIOVISUAL PROGRAMS----------	0	1	1	3	13	18	19	25	30	14	7	7
3.7	BIBLIOGRAPHIES----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
3.8	BOOK PROGRAMS----------	3	5	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.9	EVALUATION----------	0	1	1	0	0	0	4	1	3	2	3	2
3.10	EXHIBITS AND DISPLAYS--EXHIBITS----------	3	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.11	FINANCE----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	0
3.12	GIFTED CHILDREN----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3.13	HISTORY----------	0	1	1	5	2	3	0	5	4	0	1	1
3.14	POLICY STATEMENTS----------	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	2	0
3.15	PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	17
3.16	STANDARDS----------	3	2	0	1	1	4	0	1	0	2	1	2

4.0	CHILDREN'S READING PROJECTS----------	25	15	26	21	14	17	31	33	38	73	49	48
4.1	HANDICAPPED CHILDREN----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2
4.2	SUMMER----------	8	7	17	14	4	7	10	6	20	12	13	18
5.0	COOPERATION--CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
6.0	FRIENDS OF THE LIBRARY--JUNIOR FRIENDS----------	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.0	HANDICAPPED, LIBRARY SERVICES FOR												
	HANDICAPPED CHILDREN----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	29	12
8.0	JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND THE LIBRARY----------	1	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
9.0	LIBRARIES AND SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS----------	0	0	74	108	66	48	104	62	46	25	9	7
10.	PUBLIC LIBRARIES--SERVICES TO----------												
10.0	ADULTS----------	0	0	0	26	10	12	22	32	16	15	27	12
10.1	ASIAN AMERICANS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	0
10.2	BLACKS--NEGROES----------	5	8	8	10	4	8	5	5	5	4	2	3
10.3	BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY----------	14	20	5	19	7	8	16	4	5	6	4	5
104	COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES----------	2	5	0	7	2	7	5	7	2	9	6	3
10.5	FOREIGN POPULATIONS--(FOREIGNERS)----------	3	6	5	7	3	4	4	15	5	11	8	6
10.6	GROUPS----------	0	10	0	0	22	7	3	6	4	5	3	7
10.7	ILLITERATES----------	3	3	0	0	3	5	8	2	3	6	2	12
10.8	INSTITUTIONS--(HOSPITALS)----------	0	0	0	11	2	3	7	6	13	13	10	6
10.9	ITALIAN-AMERICANS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	2
10.10	MIGRANTS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	3	2	0

(appendix cont. on p. 390)

Appendix (cont.)

Library Literature Subject Headings: 1958-1985

		58-60	61-3	64-6	67-9	70-1	72-3	74-5	76-7	78-9	80-1	82-3	84-5
10.11	MINORITIES----------	0	0	0	0	0	31	11	4	5	11	4	5
10.12	NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS----------	1	0	0	2	5	8	12	6	8	4	1	4
10.13	PARENTS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	9	9	14
10.14	POLISH-AMERICANS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
10.15	PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	21	18	11	16	6	0
10.16	PRISONS----------	0	0	0	0	2	11	20	12	3	1	3	2
10.17	SCHOOLS----------	25	11	8	6	4	4	8	3	6	9	4	0
10.18	SENIOR CITIZENS----------	0	24	0	0	12	14	21	13	19	22	15	14
10.19	SHUT-INS----------	0	0	0	8	9	5	7	9	10	2	3	1
10.20	SPANISH-AMERICANS----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	5	15	5	8	3
10.21	STAFF----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	18	11	16	6
10.22	STUDENTS----------	20	51	48	7	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.0	PUBLICITY--CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES----------	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0
12.0	SCHOOLS AND PUBLIC LIBRARY RELATIONSHIPS----------	39	32	33	40	26	34	13	18	13	7	10	6
13.0	STATE LIBRARY AGENCIES--CHILDRENS LIBRARY SERVICES----	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14.0	STORYHOURS AND STORYTELLING----------	42	52	34		12	25	29	29	28	45	24	32
15.0	SURVEYS--CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICES----------	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	2	5	6	5
15.1	CHILDREN'S READING----------	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	4	9

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From Idealism to Realism: Library Directors and Children's Services

DOROTHY J. ANDERSON

Introduction

A REVIEW OF THE changing attitudes of library directors toward children's services shows striking parallels between the rhetoric of 100 years ago and that of today. This paper will compare and contrast the views of past and present library directors on three themes: the child as our future, outreach programs, and the children's librarian.

Since library directors generally reflect the view of children prevalent in society during their administration, consider the following sweep of events. In the 1880s, native-born Americans were mostly white Anglo-Saxon protestants. Between 1890 and 1914, a heavy wave of Catholics and Jews from southern and eastern Europe emigrated to the United States. By 1920, fears of the immigrant invasion resulted in policies designed to limit immigration from southern and eastern Europe. Another response was an educational and moral crusade to socialize and "Americanize" the new immigrants. The reform movement of which the library was a part concentrated its efforts on children.

Frances Clarke Sayers, applauding the reform spirit of her predecessors, called the opening of public libraries to children "one of the most gracious and humane acts of faith in this great and fumbling democracy."[1] A century later, native-born Americans again face the problems and challenges of a massive wave of immigrants, this time

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from Latin America, Asia, and the Middle East. At a time when service to children is again the critical priority, library directors must deal with economic stress and a shortage of librarians who will bring a new generation of children into the library. The library directors interviewed for this report viewed children's services as:

—essential to public library survival;
—the critical outreach arm of the library; and
—dependent on multitalented, politically astute children's librarians.

The Child as Our Future

Empowered by their vision of saving children from illiteracy and crime, pioneer children's librarians strode into the gutters and ghettos bringing books—a magic window on the world. Library directors applauded and supported these efforts as appropriate expressions of a democratic institution in a new country.

William I. Fletcher, a library administrator from Hartford, Connecticut and one of the founders of the American Library Association (ALA), expressed in 1876 the first concern over the needs of younger readers. He urged librarians to reach the young as early as possible and warned: "Our public libraries will fail in an important part of their mission if they shut out from their treasures minds craving the best."[2]

During the years 1890 to 1914, says social historian Dee Garrison, "librarians joined the army of concerned citizens, chiefly female, who worked to enrich the life of the child, to Americanize the foreigner and to deal with urban problems."[3] Early children's librarians attempted to inculcate the middle-class values of education and propriety. They believed, as Garrison notes, in the "perfectability of men and institutions."[4]

When ALA's first children's section was established in 1900, it was supported by prominent library directors and leaders such as Caroline Hewins, Richard R. Bowker, Linda A. Eastman, Mary Wright Plummer, Salome C. Fairchild—"all warm believers in the place of the child in the library."[5] It was in keeping with the American dream for educated professionals to help the lower classes find their way into the mainstream of society. "If much of the work with children was overly sentimental and excessively controlling," Garrison points out, "still the lives of thousands of immigrant children who were introduced to books through the American public library system were enriched by the experience." Pioneer Canadian librarian Lillian Smith in the 1930s, unabashedly affirmed the missionary zeal of early children's librarians:

> The keynote of the whole work of the children's librarian is opportunity. Opportunity, if a children's librarian can keep her spirit clear and alive, to become a sort of channel through which some kind of the glory of the universe can get through to the children by means of the contagion of her own unfeigned enthusiasm for books.[6]

The social idealism expressed by early children's librarians was rekindled in the 1960s by the "Great Society." In 1964, library educator, Sara Wheeler, saw children's library service as a vehicle for social change:

> Children's library service to the disadvantaged has brought heartening results,...Although we have a clear sense of the difficulties of a successful program, we anticipate a brighter future, in which all Americans can participate impartially in the American dream. Children's libraries can indeed play an important part in making such participation possible.[7]

In 1984, Will Manley, director of the Tempe (Arizona) Public Library, again proclaimed the child as our future. "However much the values of contemporary society may differ from those of the Victorian era," he said, "the perpetuation of society's goals, objectives, and ideals is dependent upon their transference to children. We may not realize it, but our futures are in the hands of our children's librarians."[8]

Outreach Programs

Over the last century, outreach efforts have targeted various potential library users such as minority, poor, immigrant children, preschoolers, and recently, latchkey children. The term *outreach* is used here to mean actions initiated by children's librarians outside of the library in order to encourage use of library materials. While adult services respond mainly to people who come into the library, children's librarians often reach out into the community.

Children's librarians have always been expected to reach out and develop relationships with other community agencies. In 1901, ALA's new Children's Library Section suggested increased cooperation with playground departments, juvenile courts, detention homes, and settlement houses.[9] While uncomfortable with the notion of "outreach" per se, Patrick O'Brien, director of the Dallas Public Library, joins the pioneers in calling for children's librarians to move out into the community, to schools, day-care centers, and other agencies serving the child. "We have to go where the kids are."[10] And where the kids are is in school.

For the first three decades of the public library the most basic and enthusiastically promoted outreach program was service to the schools. Early library directors liberally supported service to the schools and by 1899 had persuaded reluctant teachers to introduce supplementary reading.[11] Yet in 1986 many states have few professionally staffed and developed school libraries, thus service to schools must still be a basic form of outreach for the public library. No matter what level of support or neglect departments of education give to school libraries, public libraries must continue to provide some kind of service to children in and through the schools.

Modern-day directors, in spite of the traditional resistance of teachers to the missionary efforts of children's librarians, still advocate a strong liaison with schools. O'Brien says, "Let teachers know we want to work with them—help them foster reading, they have more authority and impact when promoting books...the library could offer pre-reading computer programs to use with day care children and elementary school children."[12] "The future holds many opportunities for children's librarians to work in schools as they did earlier in the century," says Regina Minudri, director of the Berkeley Public Library. Minudri continued: "We must focus on helping schools."[13] Michael Cart, director of the Beverly Hills Public Library, says: "We reach out regularly to schools. We can't sit and wait for people to come to us."[14]

Carolyn Johnson, city librarian in Fullerton, California, responded enthusiastically to the modern-day challenge of reaching out to immigrant children through programs and schools:

> Forty-one different languages are spoken by children in the Fullerton public schools! Our children's librarians don't speak all of them—but they smile and they reach out. They are committed to winning the trust and allegiance of the children. These one-to-one relationships are expensive, but they are the strength of the public library.[15]

Over the last century library directors have expressed considerable ambiguity in the area of outreach. They seem both proud and scornful of the community contacts initiated and maintained by children's librarians. Some say service to children is the most effective outreach arm of the public library, and an ideal marketing device that wins friends for the library from all citizen groups. But, directors agree that one-to-one personalized service and children's programs are costly and difficult to evaluate. Furthermore, preached iconoclast Ervin Gaines, outreach programs are not the real business of the library.

Gaines, director of the Cleveland Public Library, called the social work role obsolete and suggested libraries focus on books and informa-

tion. He urged librarians to resist the romantics who see the library as "savior of the illiterate and as a daycare center for the child of the working mother."[16]

In spite of the beliefs of directors like Gaines, a critical issue for the future of children's service is the attitude of American society toward its immigrants. Evidence mounts that Americans again feel imperiled by economic woes and ethnic distrust. These attitudes are reflected in an antiimmigrant backlash with "distinct racial overtones." Many Americans are ready to "pull up the welcome mat" in reaction to the recent wave of Hispanic and Asian immigration.[17] While many Americans fear this immigration, library leaders in this study tend to view it as an opportuinity that could help to preserve the public library as a vital American institution.

"The influx of non-English speakng immigrants," however, "exacerbated problems of service that were already serious in some areas of the country."[18] This quotation is from The *ALA Yearbook* for 1980, but this observation could have just as well described the period from 1890 to 1914.

In a recent interview, Lillian Bradshaw, retired director of the Dallas Public Library, expressed a commitment (prevalent among the administrators interviewed) to introducing immigrants to American culture in a noncondescending way.

> We have had an obligation to immigrants (ever since the Statue of Liberty welcomed everybody over here)—to take those who come to us and do the very best we can with them. I do not mean that as Lord of the Manor. Here is an opportunity to show some of our ways of living and some of our better things, and I think the public library is one of them.[19]

Among the minority and immigrant groups, most directors report middle-class Asians as the most eager library users. Hispanic refugees often fleeing poverty or political unrest and confronting a language barrier have not used the library as much. Blacks, denied equal access to libraries until the 1960s and often discouraged in pursuing education by racial prejudice, have also underutilized libraries. O'Brien sees two practical problems facing the administrator who wants to reach out to minority children:

1. "Majority" librarians just don't work out in "minority" branches. They are often harassed and sometimes vandalized. Communities ask for librarians of "their own kind."
2. It is almost impossible to recruit ethnic minorities into librarianship, and *if* recruited they may perceive children's librarianship as a dead-end career or that their opportunities are limited to work in barrios or ghettos.[20]

A curious theme that occurs as a problem in the outreach rhetoric of 100 years ago and again today is the presence of unwanted people in the library. Librarians have always resented the homeless and other "inappropriate" library users. Now, as in the late 1880s, problems of the homeless are on the increase. Garrison reports that 100 years ago: "most worrisome in the library was the presence in the reading room of unemployed or homeless men who used the library as a temporary haven from the elements."[21]

The newest involuntary library user is the so-called "latchkey kid"—the child told to wait at the library until he is picked up or until an adult gets home to let him in—an ideal "outreach" target say some directors.

Protesting that they are not a babysitting service, however, professional children's librarians find it difficult to either motivate or discipline children who are *forced* to be in the library. Library directors like O'Brien, however, turn a deaf ear to the complaints of overworked and overwrought children's librarians. "Latchkey children are not a problem, they are an opportunity," says O'Brien. "We've got all kinds of things for them to do. They're classified as a problem because they've been cooped up in school all day, then parents tell them to sit and wait at the library and children's librarians can't tolerate that. But we want the kids to come."[22]

Michael Cart sees the abdication of parental responsibility as a sociological problem. Like O'Brien, Cart says: "Don't complain about latch-key kids—it's an opportunity. We don't have to go out and get the kids—they are here."[23]

In addition to minority or immigrant nonusers and latchkey children, the most recent group to be targeted for library programming is the preschooler. Patrick O'Brien notes that, "no other agency can help children learn as early as the library can, we aren't stepping on anyone else's turf, we can offer programs for pre-school children and work with day-care centers....It's the only place where we can really have an impact—where we can look back and say we had a role."[24]

Cart reports successful 1986 preschool story hours drawing 130 toddlers to each program. "These events establish great relationships with kids and their parents."[25]

Charles Robinson, director of the Baltimore County Public Library says: "Pre-schoolers are the library's most important target audience...14% of circulation in Baltimore County is preschool material. It is the highest distinct category in our library circulation."[26] One variation on the theme of outreach to the young child is the-child-as-

link-to-reaching-the-adult. Pioneer leaders believed in the potential of children to lure parents and other adults into the library—"through the child the elusive adult could be indirectly influenced."[27]

Current library directors repeat this theme but without the moral tone. Even if one is not idealistic about encouraging a "love for books in the hearts of children" then at least, says Will Manley, "recognize their ability to bring adult users to the library....the only way to get whole families involved in a weekly library habit is to appeal directly to the children, not their parents."[28]

Carolyn Johnson says first grade children come to the library bringing shy, afraid, non-English-speaking parents. The child translates for them. "The parents care terribly about intellectual opportunities for their children. In some cases we will reach immigrant adults through the children."[29]

Another variation on the outreach theme is, The Adult is Lost—Let Us Save the Child. "The juvenile department became a major component of public library work," says Garrison, "partly because library leaders, discouraged by their failure to shape the reading tastes of adults, turned to library service to children as one of the best means of guiding the minds and morals of the future citizenry."[30]

E.C. Richardson, in his presidential address of 1905, explained at the ALA conference "in view of the fact that in the work of assimilating the foreign immigration, we can never hope to make great progress with the adult, but must of necessity rely on beginnng work with children."[31] Eighty years later, O'Brien would say much the same thing: "We've lost the adult minorities. They are not motivated to come to the library. Our real goal is kids—they are ours for the asking; they are our hope for the future and we are their hope."[32]

The Children's Librarian

What do library directors think of children's librarians themselves? Feelings on this subject are rarely neutral. Attitudes toward children's librarians center around their personalities, their programs, and their professional skills. Pioneer children's librarians were beloved, feared, and respected. They were called the finest, the most knowledgeable, most compassionate, most competent of all librarians. Distinguished library director and educator, Mary Wright Plummer, outlined the position's qualifications precisely in 1897:

> If there is on the library staff an assistant well read and well educated, broad minded, tactful, with common sense and judgement, attractive

> to children in manners and person; possessed, in short, of all desirable qualities, she should be taken from wherever she is, put into the children's library, and paid enough to keep her there.[33]

Later in the first decades of the 20th century the tough, visionary, risk-taking leadership of women like Anne Carrol Moore, Effie Power, Frances Clarke Sayers, Mildred L. Batchelder, and Rosemary Livsey built a stereotype of strength, at least at the leadership level.

In his classic study of the public library in the mid-1940s, Robert Leigh called public library service to children "an impressive achievement." "Not only are the children's librarians expert but also in the community they are recognized as such. Thus children's rooms and children's librarians have been the classic success in the public library."[34]

Administrator and educator Lowell Martin echoes these accolades twenty years later: "The notable success in the public library has been children's services....It works in the slum as well as the suburb. And in the public mind it is thought of as one of the most natural and significant activities of the public library."[35]

Yet by the end of the 1960s, political indifference and economic setbacks ushered in the bleak years—children's services became too special, too expensive—a luxury. Children's librarians were being "declared a species extinct in their own time," Anne Izard stated and added that:

> This is not because children's librarians have not done their work well. In spite of certain administrators who have made slighting remarks about their libraries not being able to do proper adult and business services because of the money devoted to playing around with puppet shows, etc., many eminent librarians and researchers have reported to the contrary.[36]

This was not the first time tight money and a shift toward business had reduced children's programs. One of the most vitriolic attacks of the century came from library director John Cotton Dana in 1915. Attacking the beloved storytellers, Dana labeled them "altruistic, emotional, dramatic, and irrepressible child-lovers" who wasted the library's money, time, and facilities.[37]

During the 1970s, children's librarians became a casualty as a scientific management cycle drove library directors to analyze, evaluate, and measure their services. As historian Paul Frisch notes: "Moral resolve and fiscal resources evaporated almost simultaneously leaving library directors with limited options."[38] Library literature of this

period brims with accusations blaming children's librarians for their own plight.

Old stereotypes were revived. Children's librarians were called petty, trifling, compliant, and inept managers. Carolyn Coughlin tells the story of Herbert Putnam in 1912 admonishing a group of women library students for "lacking a sense of proportion, for peevishness, and for being absorbed in small details." There might be a "grain of truth in it," Coughlin adds, since directors still criticize children's librarians for "concentrating on minute details, promoting outdated programs, and lack of involvement in management....It is no longer sufficient," she says, "to blindly accept Anne Carroll Moore's unsophisticated goal of 'bringing children and books *happily* together' as the total career goal for a children's librarian."[39]

Children's librarians have "perpetuated beliefs and behavior patterns that may lead to the elimination, downgrading, or ostracism of children's services," said Coughlin, and called for abandonment of the nurturing role and moral motivations, for dispensing ideas instead of dispensing "goodness."[40]

Taking the brunt of library directors' frustration, children's librarians were demoralized and pessimistic.[41] Izard urged children's librarians to forget the victim role and forge ahead:

> It is no time to spend our time moaning about the rosy past and the leaders who are no longer here to lead the way...let me remind you that the leaders we remember sentimentally were great because they were realistic and forged ahead into the future. They were ready to meet their administrators and the times in which they lived with hard facts and realistic plans....It is a time for taking stock of what we are, what we believe in, and how we can further the cause of total community library service.[42]

While Izard and other leaders fought back in a positive tone, many rank and file children's librarians internalized the negative appraisals of library administrators, school boards, and of society in general. Their self-perceived isolation and powerlessness was blamed on lack of management skills. "The real problem," said Virginia Van Vliet, "lies in ourselves, in our over-attention to the materials of our trade and our lack of attention to analyzing its objectives and results, to our isolationism and our failure to involve ourselves in matters of concern to the profession as a whole."[43] Frances Sayers, decades earlier, had also warned children's librarians against parochial thinking.

> The great pity is that too often the children's librarian is well content to inhabit a world of her own where she moves with a minimum of

> interference; a kind of cherished Queen Bee, warm and comfortable within a circle of an admiring public who look up to her as a kind of fairy godmother. Such a children's librarian does herself, her profession, and children she serves great injustice. One of her chief functions is to stand as interpreter between the world of childhood and the life of the adult. How can she accomplish this when she isolates herself from the adult world, when she knows little of world literature and the changing concepts of man's relation to others and to the universe which that literature constantly explores and interprets.[44]

More recently, Lillian Bradshaw exhorted children's librarians who feel isolated from top administrators to "cease thinking about themselves and think about their clients...pull together pertinent information and send it up the administrative ladder," she says. "This is not time for handwringing."[45]

Library directors in this study agree that the single most important management skill for children's librarians to master is succinct, upward communication. They want children's librarians to write terse, persuasive, well-documented, synthesized reports and requests. "The mantle of infallibility does not fall upon one's shoulders the moment one becomes a library director," admits Regina Minudri. "Directors can respond most intelligently when they receive cogent, thoughtful insights and reasoning from specialist staff members."[46]

Ruth Gregory offers practical advice:

> At the very minimum children's librarians...must learn how to anticipate the type of information that is needed at administrative....levels for decision making...develop the patience to interpret and reinterpret the goals, the programs....Administrators,...need documentation on the purpose of a program, its cost in terms of materials, staffing, and operating time. In addition, the plan must indicate how the program may be evaluated. A plan with such elements becomes an instrument of communication and is respected by budget-planners.[47]

Warnings about the inability of children's librarians to make their programs defensible in managerial terms had been issued for decades. Ruth Warncke told children's librarians in 1967 that it was not enough to be loved by the children—or to plan vital programs. They must learn to estimate costs and keep within them. "Every weakness in one department," she said, "puts a burden on other departments, and the pressure increases by geometric ratio until it reaches the administrator."[48]

Despite these early exhortations, children's librarians remained reluctant to consider management issues until the 1970s. As William Summers pointed out in 1977, children's librarians suffered in status by not responding to "the demands of a scientific-rational approach to

decision making." They had not been prepared in library schools to give their administrators cost benefit data on their programs. "It is essential that quality be defined and demonstrated, rather than asserted....Develop a means of measuring the outcome of your services."[49] One of the results of such admonishments was the reexamination of programs in terms of their purpose and cost. "The relationship of children's programming to the overall mission of a library has not been evaluated,"[50] noted Mae Benne. Reviewing early services for children, Fenwick notes the assumptions implicit in early program design:

> It became evident that public library services designed over the years to serve children motivated to read by home experience and encouraged to learn—the children who would use libraries and would read books despite obstacles—were neither likely to attract nor satisfy children living in the overcrowded inner-city slums, where poverty, language problems and racial tensions were barriers to communication.[51]

Programs may not only be costly, but they may in fact disguise the true function of the library according to Kathleen Strelioff:

> Librarians are called upon to be artists, musicians, puppeteers, entertainers, cloaking their real goals in the glamour of show biz in order to capture a youth weaned upon the instant gratification of the television screen and the arcade game. The necessity for assumption of this aggressive public relations stance by children's librarians,...has led to a decrease in the quality of the service provided. In many cases children's librarians lack the staff, the training and/or the money to accomplish their goals in a sophisticated way. Yet it is this same lack of quality that turns present day youth away from the public library as they perceive it to be an institution that does not meet their information needs.[52]

This abundance of programs is reminiscent of the frenetic programming efforts of the golden years.

> In 1911 a survey revealed that the lives of approximately 1,035,195 children were being directly touched by the work of a woman from the public library, both inside and outside the library building....Utilizing every technique of publicity they could envision, librarians sought to attract new readers with storytellng, clubs, contests, exhibits and home visits.[53]

One drastic response to the high cost of children's programming in the 1970s was the elimination of highly qualified Children's Specialists in Baltimore County Public Library. Director Charles Robinson rationalized the approach by noting that at the hours when adults poured into the library, children's librarians might be "cutting out paper

figures for their programs." His solution was to create a pool of librarians able to handle a full range of services and to eliminate age-level specialists.

The generalist approach generated a torrent of criticism from concerned children's librarians who saw the potential for superficial, reluctant service and mediocre programming. Baltimore County's action signaled that children's librarians were no longer unique or affordable. The essential requirement of "knowing the literature and knowing children" was gone.

Margaret Kimmel, in her review of the generalist approach, concludes that the experiment "suggests a 'conversion' from professional goals to a credo based on short-term objectives."[54] Robinson himself acknowledged: "I am not convinced that you give better service with generalism than with age-level specialists, if you can afford enough personnel, but I am convinced that generalism offers a way to give the best service we can under the present budgetary circumstances."[55] The approach did, however, offer children's librarians a chance to enlarge their boundaries both personally and professionally. Some discovered their talent for management unrecognized by directors until they served adults as well as children.

Realizing that knowledge of management principles and participation in the management process put them in a better position to govern their own fates, by 1982 many children's librarians had indeed mastered management skills. Others, as Minudri points out, had long demonstrated superior management skills. "Use the skills that every children's librarian possesses," she says, "in order to promote children's services to directors and voters."[56]

Agreeing that it is a myth that children's librarians are not good managers, Jane McGregor observed:

> They fool themselves and other librarians if they do not recognize that they make more administrative decisions than many others in their profession—decisions on expenditures of money, deployment of personnel, community relations.[57]

Children's librarians also have rare personal qualities needed by administrators, notes Charlotte Szabo, "they are used to working creatively with slim budgets, they work effectively with both parents and children (our future taxpayers), they have boundless enthusiasm, and they are usually self-directed."[58]

In light of these exceptional qualities, some directors and many children's librarians feel frustrated by the traditional practice of promoting only adult services librarians to the position of branch head.

Minudri expresses the dilemma faced by directors who would like to use the administrative talents of children's librarians. "Children's librarians have the kinds of skills I'm looking for in a branch librarian," she says. "They have good communication skills; they know the community, and they are better acquainted with the adult collection than adult reference librarians are with the children's collection. But children's librarians can't always supervise along with their heavy programming and outreach responsibilities."[59] Some directors such as Los Angeles County's Crismond have spotted rising talent among children's librarians and promoted them into management. "I regard experience as a children's librarian as a significant accomplishment when a person comes up for promotion," she said.[60]

Most other directors interviewed also viewed children's librarians as superior, essential, and unique. In fact the literature reveals few detractors of children's librarians. As former ALA Deputy Executive Director Ruth Warncke points out: "Library administrators were *very* reluctant to ever *say* they did not support children's services, but they didn't put money or staff into it."[61]

All of the supportive rhetoric from directors may be put to the test again in the late 1980s and 1990s. As historian Michael Harris notes: "Librarians have been characterized by a defect of will which has prevented them from committing the resources necessary to truly test their ability to conclude one of their crusades."[62]

Rediscovering Children's Services

After more than a decade of preoccupation with technology and budget problems, public library directors and other professional leaders have begun again to focus on the library's largest group of users, children and youth.

While many turn-of-the-century directors and current directors focused on children, their motivations differ radically. Pioneer directors were driven by the hope of uplifting the masses. Today's directors still believe public libraries are a mainstay of civilization—and they understand the importance of children's services, but they have few illusions. They focus on children for survival of the institution. Preoccupied with survival, they could be described as having a pragmatic vision. Their concerns to a great extent are focused on money, management, and marketing. They recognize the cost of one-to-one service and of programs; they want children's librarians to manage objectively on the basis of hard data. Los Angeles County Public Library Director Linda

Crismond echoes this idea: "Children's librarians and library directors must manage the future together...be willing to give up things that don't work."[63]

Faced with increasing immigration, a climbing birthrate, and a shortage of both children's librarians and money, library directors like Crismond are considering a range of practical solutions.

> We will need to start our own internal continuing education program to teach practical skills. We need to make an investment at the library school level...encourage internships in children's services....For new immigrants we can design bi-lingual *marketing*, survival information, and job information. And literacy efforts should include children.[64]

Pauline Wilson, analyzing library user studies of different socio-economic areas, concludes, "service to children...will have the greatest and most long-lasting benefits...for the individual and for society."[65] O'Brien adds:

> I believe that our best target of opportunity in serving minorities and disadvantaged is concentration on children's services. The staffing implications are obvious. We will need more children's librarians and nonprofessionals trained in serving children. I do not believe that these staff have to be minority or bicultural as advocated by the Committee on Library Services to Minorities. Certainly in some areas bilingual staff will be necessary. The basic need will be the same as it's always been—for loving, caring, concerned, and dedicated children's services staff.[66]

O'Brien also seems to suggest that librarians fulfill a role as surrogate literate parents. Illiterate or semiliterate parents, he believes, in a TV-centered environment, are unlikely to foster intellectual curiosity or love of reading.[67]

Along with pragmatism library directors express a new *realism* in attidudes toward both children's librarians and children. Bradshaw reflects on the "precious" children's librarians of her youth.

> I wasn't a very precious child. I wanted non-fiction usually, but the children's librarians pushed *Wind in the Willows*. I came to feel children's librarians represented a world apart. They wanted the world to be the way they wanted it to be, not the way it is. A glimpse of that fanciful kingdom is all right, but I don't think we live in that kingdom. The children's librarians I respect most have a more practical way of thinking.[68]

Will Manley, while acknowledging the redeeming virtues of children, says:

> Just as we must revise our notion of children's librarians as gentle, sentimental, precious creatures, it is important to adopt a *realistic* attitude toward children. They are not the cute, kind, innocent and naturally loving creatures portrayed on television. They are loud, uncompromising, cantankerous, obstreperous, selfish and very difficult to communicate with.
>
> Making a commitment to children's services...therefore, is asking for hassles and predictable problems as well as for a busier library. The important step is to make the commitment, but this will not be easy. It involves putting more money and more staff into the children's department and any administrator knows well that changing budgetary priorities always meets traumatic resistance.[69]

Library directors seem to know intuitively that their survival depends on creating a new middle class.

> A robust, growing middle class is central to the continuance of democracy. Society now threatens to erode in the middle. Children of the future middle class are less likely to assume positions equal to the level their parents had and it is harder now for new members to gain entrance to the middle class. The library has always been a middle class institution. If the fate of any institution is tied to a particular class, the institution must make sure the class remains strong and growing.[70]

The mandate for library directors is clear—focus on children to ensure creation of a literate and informed middle class. Encourage lifelong learning, deliver services which are sensitive to the desire for personal mobility, and recognize the indelible influence of the formative years.

The new focus on children's services seems inevitable, necessary for survival, and central to professional health. Acknowledging that library directors and children's librarians need each other to create a future market for public library service, Will Manley says: "Educational and humanitarian ideals aside, our future livelihood depends on how seriously we regard children and children's librarians."[71]

It is not surprising, perhaps, that many of the contemporary library leaders cited in this review use money metaphors to characterize their opinion of children's services. They cut through sentiment to the bottom line—no customers means no service. "Children are a goldmine," exclaims Robinson. "We ignore them at our peril."[72]

"You gamble that an investment in children will pay off in a taxpaying library-using public," says Crismond. "Service to children is a fantastic *investment* for the public library.[73] Service to children is the "best buy for the money," reasons Wilson.[74] "Design children's programs that give the 'most bang for the buck,' " counsels O'Brien.[75] "It

will take money to remove cultural isolation—children's librarians can bring together kids who are different, and that is a key to survival."[76]

Library directors quoted here cite changing populations and diminishing budgets as major factors shaping their current view of children's services as a "best buy." While their vision of the future beyond survival is unclear, they see two initial commitments.

1. Library directors must express their commitment to children's services with higher budget and staff allocations.
2. Children's librarians must assess the level of their own commitment to serving all children and select those age groups and programs designed to maximize use of the library.

The traditional ambivalence toward outreach programs persists. Librarians still face a profound contradiction between a professed philosophy of service to all and the fears and attitudes that prevent them from actively reaching out to all. Now, as a century ago: "To function as an elite corps with a *spirit* of democratic equality was essentially an impossible goal."[77] On the one hand, directors point to the critical need for a major new outreach effort. "We have to think beyond our walls."[78] Yet Crismond says that: "Programs for children are costly and time consuming. Our staff is so busy [that] they want to know what they *don't* have to do to meet growing population needs."[79]

Conclusion

This review of library directors' attitudes toward children's services has compared the opinions of the idealistic and moralistic pioneers with those of today's pragmatic, survival-conscious directors. There are distinct similarities.

There are also vast differences between the two groups, differences profound enough to preclude the success of yesterday's solutions to today's problems. Today's directors and children's librarians are not so absorbed with moral uplift. There are more social services available to the "masses." Not only are library directors more practical and less visionary than their forbears, library school students have also adopted a practical outlook. They often seek more money, prestige, and career opportunity than children's librarianship now offers. They are also less willing to superimpose their values on others and this change is a key to the current dilemma. No matter how vigorously directors now advocate outreach, without a moral imperative, few professionals will mount a passionate crusade to bring the new children into the library. Ironically,

it is no longer library directors who balk at further outreach—it may be the children's librarians themselves.

Without question, today's children's librarians are very different from their forebears. Pioneer children's librarians were "Victorians" with strong middle-class values, liberal educations, and limited career options. They were often reared as confident leaders who won the respect of both community and colleagues. Current and potential children's librarians may come from less affluent families, they are rarely reformers, often have children themselves, and enjoy limitless career options. These differences in background may influence the level of commitment that can be awakened in the new children's librarian.

Library directors today seem to seek a revival of the golden years when children's librarians were willing to dedicate youth and energy to their high calling. However, fewer children's librarians today are driven by the need to "rescue" children. They are less willing to go into dangerous communities where their services are not welcome, and they may be reluctant to encourage the patronage of children who don't know how to behave in a library or who are just taking up space and disturbing legitimate users. Directors will look in vain for the new library missionary.

Over the past century, library directors have viewed children's librarians as saviors of the masses, precious sentimentalists, tough dictators, superior performers, useful or expendable—and now, as the key to survival.

While these interviews did not reveal breakthrough solutions to the cyclical problems affecting relationships between directors and children's librarians, they did clarify a current dilemma of great consequence to the survival of librarianship.

1. Directors now need children's librarians to create a new generation of library users from among poor and immigrant populations.
2. Directors need the development of this new literate middle class to provide a future tax base for library support.
3. To create this support, directors need children's librarians who are compassionate, committed, and competent, and who will consciously target services toward the new populations. They call on children's librarians to perform the miracle of turning reluctant, distracted, semiliterate children into tomorrow's informed taxpaying library-using citizenry.

At the very moment when the United States has millions of new children for whom the public library could be a road to lifelong learn-

ing, directors face an acute shortage of children's librarians and continuing economic pressures. Library directors and children's librarians individually and together must determine if they will pay the price in money, commitment, and energy to meet the challenge.

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Current Trends in Literature for Children

BARBARA ELLEMAN

IN THE FUTURE STUDY of children's literature, the years between 1960 and 1985 will prove significant because of two major, multifaceted influences that have expanded and revolutionized the field of children's books; (1) changes in the world of children's publishing; and (2) changes in the sociopolitical climate of the country. Debate may range over the positive or negative aspects in each area, but there can be little argument over the impact.

From 1918—generally earmarked as the beginning of children's book publishing in the United States—throughout the late 1950s, children's books enjoyed a relatively stable period characterized by predictable plots, essential decency, and restrained good fun. It has been said that literature for children mirrors society—i.e., reflecting the culture of the time and the way children are perceived and treated.

Changes in the Children's Publishing Market

In the early 1960s, the economic backbone of children's publishing was significantly altered as publishing departments were expanded to meet a new demand for children's books and the sociopolitical climate of the country underwent upheaval. These events triggered changes in the children's book field that continue to evolve today.

When the first editorial departments were formed prior to 1920 specifically to publish children's books, the editors hired to spearhead these new ventures had library and educational backgrounds. The titles

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they published reflected that expertise. Shaped by a librarian's hand, the books were designed to attract a library market. Virtually every picture book, novel, and nonfiction title was distinctly child oriented; stories contained pristine characters and uplifting themes; and informational titles fit prescribed curricula. Librarians worked closely with their editor colleagues, providing input into editorial decisions and ascertaining what children should and should not read. Scott Elledge's *E.B. White: A Biography* (Norton, 1984) reveals letters from New York Public librarian Anne Carroll Moore, who after reading the manuscript of *Stuart Little*, wrote to Ursula Nordstrom, White's editor at Harper, telling her emphatically not to publish the book. These publisher-librarian relationships gradually changed as new personnel entered the field, but the established patterns remained in place for decades.

Then a new influence—finance—made itself felt in the children's book field, bringing new directions that would have far-reaching effects. In the aftermath of Sputnik, millions of dollars were pumped into the schools through NDEA grants, mandating libraries to expand and refurbish science, mathematics, and foreign language collections and, in a later extension known as Title II, social studies materials. With nearly unlimited funds, librarians sought a variety of materials to meet the changing curricula and the renewed emphasis on reading.

Seeing the demand, publishers quickly stepped in to meet the need. Books were rushed to press, sales soared, and library collections bulged. This booming prosperity also brought book publishing under the eye of Wall Street and its acquisition-hungry conglomerates, ever watchful for money-making opportunities. Publishing companies became a part of big business and personnel found it necessary to learn to handle budgets, five-year plans, cost ratios, and bottom lines.

As the demand for books grew, authors and illustrators were actively recruited and encouraged to experiment with their creative powers. This kind of license resulted in beautifully illustrated books and provocative themes stretching the field to new limits. Evidence of this expansion can be observed in a look at the American Library Association's Children's Notable Books lists—in 1956 nineteen titles were selected as worthy of inclusion, four years later the count had risen to forty-one, and by 1968 the list included sixty-two choices.

To handle the increased work load, publishing staffs were expanded—assistant editors, art directors, and publicists swelled the ranks. Library and educational backgrounds were no longer requisite for personnel; liberal arts and journalism graduates with an interest in publishing, assistants who worked themselves up through the ranks,

marketing department employees with a taste for editorial concerns, and, in the bottom-line conscious 1980s, MBAs became the decision-makers. Aggressive and attuned to sales, a new breed had taken hold, shifting the editorial focus. The library market was still a powerful buying force, but its position as the only sales outlet was soon to be challenged.

Federal funding, which had seemed unlimited at its inception, dwindled in the 1970s and publishers, encumbered by heavily staffed departments and stables of authors and illustrators courted in the bountiful years, searched for alternative markets. The one they found—the bookstore—surfaced at just the time when educated, affluent parents, ripe with child-development expertise, were looking for materials for their new offspring. Rarely has need and demand so swiftly meshed.

Grasping at a way to attract the new market, editors experimented with board, bathtub, cloth, and other toybook items. "Baby lit," as it was dubbed by *Publishers Weekly*, had arrived. The bookstore market also found customers in grandparents wanting to share old favorites with their grandchildren, parents hoping to increase reading scores and instill a joy of reading in their children, and youngsters themselves able to afford books based on motion pictures and television programs and paperback romances. Books designed for a consumer market, rather than a library one, brought a new direction to publishing. An immense push was given by *The Read-Aloud Handbook*, written by newspaperman Jim Trelease, a parent, layperson, and advocate of reading. Skillful publicity made the title an overnight best-seller and Trelease a near-household name. His message about the importance of books and reading helped to intensify and broaden the already growing interest in books for children by the general public.

Aware that buyers for bookstores had neither the expertise in book selection nor the inclination to study the field, publishers began using Madison Avenue marketing tactics. They met the market on its own level by providing a wide variety of familiar titles in new formats, labeling books as sequels and companions to encourage sales, offering vast displays of eye-catching picture books, and packaging books in spiffy dust jackets with inviting titles. The public responded, and the publishers, now confident of their new market, offered more titles with instant purchase appeal. Edward Packard's Choose-Your-Own Adventure books, which have sold thousands of copies, spawned other participatory series. Mysteries, the occult, romance, and even picture books have not escaped the multiplot gimmick. Paperback romances became the greatest seller of all: the Wild Fire, Sweets Dreams, Silhouette series

were released in quantity and their generic titles often resulted in identification by number. No one claimed they were literature, but their popularity had effect. Traditional hardback publishers raced to give the paperback "fluff" competition, unleashing a rash of romantic novels that, though generally better written, were nevertheless lightweight and breezy.

A particularly unfortunate aspect of the romance genre has been its reliance on stereotyped characters and almost total reflection of white, middle-class, surburban life. The multicultural, realistic themes that emerged in the consciousness-raising 1960s were ignored in the formula-written romance series.

Effects of Changes in the Sociopolitical Climate

The sociopolitical tenor of the country is often cited as a major factor in trends in publishing for children. This influence became keenly felt in the 1960s when upheavals in life-styles, traditions, mores, and language, as well as protests against sexism and racism, brought a new realism to children's books. Taboos were erased as authors explored themes previously thought unacceptable—i.e., alcoholism, drugs, sex, violence, and divorce.

Published in 1964 and considered a milestone in children's literature, Louise Fitzhugh's *Harriet the Spy* (Harper) features a protagonist who spies on others, tells lies, and is often disagreeable. Harriet's believability as a character and the candor, wit, and satirical bite with which the story unfolds makes it unique. Its controversial nature kept it from being chosen as an ALA Children's Notable Book during the year of its publication. Six years later, with a more liberal outlook clearly in vogue, it was included in a retrospective 1960-1964 Notable Books List. It deserved a place, according to the selection committee, because the book had "proven its worth in time."

Harriet the Spy along with the *It's Like This, Cat* by Emily Neville marked the end of the popularity of the group protagonist prevalent in the All-of-a-Kind Family, the Moffats, the Saturdays, and the Borrowers-style books. Interest began to center on the single character in an individual set of circumstances. When feminist concerns came to the forefront, the single character became predominantly female and portrayals were distincly individualized—girls were clearly in command. Three books, all published in 1973, Ellen Conford's *Felicia the Critic* (Little Brown), Constance Greene's *Isabelle the Itch* (Viking), and Stella Pevsner's *Call Me Heller, That's My Name* (Clarion) exemplify this

emergence of strong girl characters. Adult women in stories also changed; no longer humdrum homebodies, they began to appear as either strong, eccentric, elderly mentors or as working mothers with jobs traditionally in the male domain—either way they figured more prominently in the plot.

Sexual balance of characters was not the only change in children's literature resulting from the 1970s sociopolitical climate. Topics such as death and disease were addressed in children's books, often in a stark realistic manner. Although E.B. White's *Charlotte's Web* (Harper, 1952) evocatively encompassed death in its theme, it was nevertheless a fantasy. However, in books such as James Collier and Christopher Collier's *My Brother Sam is Dead* (Four Winds, 1974) the devastation and death during the Civil War was the main theme. Constance Greene's *Beat the Turtle Drum* (Viking, 1976) and Lois Lowry's *A Summer to Die* (Houghton, 1977) made death even more immediate with contemporary settings and characters. Realistic problem novels became the mode; Judy Blume's *Are You There God? It's Me Margaret* (Bradbury, 1970) with its forthright discussion of menstruation and bras, presented one of the truest portrayals ever written of an ordinary preteen's concerns about herself and her daily life. Children eagerly responded; though Blume has not received a major literary award, though adults often do not encourage the reading of her books, and though she has consistently received mixed reviews, there never has been a more sought after author among preteens. Her unprecedented popularity resulted in the phrase the "Blume phenomenon" and her success has led to the publication of hundreds of similar stories, many of which are weak imitations.

The controversial topics that prevailed in the market for preteens in the 1970s are now more common in novels for older teens. Today, stories for younger readers are more likely to deal with everday concerns such as sibling rivalry, divorce, stepparents, and home relocation. The first-person narrative, unfortunately, has become repetitious in plot and shallow in theme. The problem is often the protagonist and well-defined characterization is lost in the morass.

This preoccupation with problem-oriented plots has led to an emerging trend in children's books—the plotless book. In these books, the author dwells on the relationship between two characters or the adjustment of one to a particular situation. In the best of this genre, such as Paula Fox's *Moonlight Man* (Bradbury, 1986), well-developed portrayals carry the story; however, often the narrative is merely a series of strung together episodes or simply an exploration of feelings.

Historical fiction, a genre that seemed to be on the verge of disappearing in the glare of contemporary problem novels has begun in the mid 1980s to show signs of resurgence. Elizabeth Speare's exquisite novel *Sign of the Beaver* (Houghton, 1983) which received the Scott O'Dell Award for Historical Fiction and the awarding of the 1986 Newbery Medal to Patricia MacLachlan for *Sarah Plain and Tall* (Harper, 1985) are sure to revitalize interest in the genre. In this century, most historical fiction for children has used U.S. backgrounds. Even today few novels concern themselves with historical situations in other countries. Lack of interest on the part of children—hence lack of sales—is claimed as the reason, a reason also cited for the small number of translated titles appearing in the literature today.

No discussion of trends would be complete without commenting on the sequel-series syndrome. Though series books (The Bobbsey Twins, Nancy Drew, Anne of Green Gables) were popular in the 1940s and 1950s, the numbers published decreased with the advent of the single protagonist in the 1970s. In the 1980s it is common to link one book to another through familiar characters such as Ramona, Anastasia, Pinkerton, Miss Nelson, or through a place such as Polk Street School. Classic characters such as Mary Poppins and Dorothy are reappearing in recently published works.

This linking sometimes results in a cycle format, especially prevalent in fantasy. Events in cycle books are often strung out over three or four volumes. Authors attempt to make each novel self-contained with varying degrees of success, but usually readers need the entire series for full impact. Following the successful publication of the Tolkien books and Lewis's Narnia tales, fantasy made a significant comeback in the 1960s and has remained strong through the 1980s. Madeleine L'Engle's *A Wrinkle in Time* (Farrar, 1962) stretched the limits of imagination, breaking old ground rules about separating fantasy from science fiction. As usual, when one author is successful, others begin to experiment and produce varied and extraordinary creations. In addition to Lloyd Alexander's Prydain Chronicles, fresh and ingenious offerings in science fiction, time travel, high fantasy, and other kinds of imaginative tales were brought forth from the pens of Patricia McKillip, Anne McCaffrey, Penelope Lively, Susan Cooper, Natalie Babbitt, and John Christopher.

Another important result of the tumultuous sixties was the recognition of the need for books about minorities. Children, regardless of color, need to be exposed to the life-styles of other cultures. Black authors of talent emerged including Brenda Wilkerson, Tom Feelings, Walter Dean Myers, Eloise Greenfield, Sharon Bell Mathies, Lucille

Clifton, and John Steptoe, giving dignity and respect a rightful place in books about blacks.

None has gained honors and praise as has Virginia Hamilton. In 1975 she won the first Newbery to be awarded to a black author and also captured the juvenile category of the National Book Awards as well as the Boston Globe-Horn Book Award for her novel *M.C. Higgins the Great* (Macmillan, 1974). She continues to garner plaudits for her creative works. Mildred Taylor's *Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry* (Dial, 1976) received the Medal for her sensitive portrayal of a black family's struggle during the depression. In 1976, and again in 1977, Leo and Diane Dillon's glowing illustrations for *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears* and *Ashanti to Zulu: African Traditions* resulted in two succeeding Caldecott awards.

Though fewer titles initially appeared about Native Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanics, and other ethnic groups, the existence of even a few aroused antipathy toward stereotypical treatment of characters and encouraged multicultural portrayals. Accounts of black history, descriptions of protest movements, and profiles of important black leaders were relatively plentiful in the 1970s. However, after an initial surge, the numbers peaked in 1978-79 and rapidly dropped off. The New York Public Library's *Black Experience in Children's Books,* which found 954 titles to include in 1974 but only listed 450 in the 1984 edition, illustrates the point. A beginning resurgence may be seen in the mid 1980s as works by Mildred Pitts Walter, Candy Dawson Boyd, Joyce Hanson, and Emily Moore have begun to appear.

Parallels may be drawn between the emergence and decline of ethnic materials and easy reading books. Concern about reading scores in the 1970s prompted an interest in stories with controlled vocabularies, large type, repetitive word use, and simple plots. Arnold Lobel set a high standard with his Frog and Toad books and soon other authors and illustrators were producing simple but worthwhile tales. Despite the continued need, the number of new offerings has dwindled. Publishers cite inadequate sales and lack of good manuscripts—the same explanations given for the small supply of ethnic materials. Lack of attention in bookstores may well be a major factor in both areas.

Trends in Picture Books

In the area of the illustrated book, the most outstanding trend in the past twenty years has been in format—the full-color picture book now almost exclusively dominates the field. A few illustrators such as Chris

Van Allsburg and Stephen Gammell also are noted for their black-and-white work, but fewer and fewer are successful in the medium. Today's visually oriented public responds best to color—the more resplendent the better—and with the technological means (high-speed presses, computers and state-of-the-art cameras) to provide it, publishers accommodate.

Illustrations featuring distinct gradations of color, subtle shading, meticulous line work, explicit detail, and varied textures make picture books aesthetically pleasing. At times the elaborate production works against itself. When illustration overwhelms story, making the book only a showcase for the art, then the concept of the picture book—with its delicate balance of illustration and text—is lost. Works of this nature have been labeled "coffee-table picture books." The majority of works in this genre, however, remain true to intent; their attractive dress has captivated the public, and children are definitely the winners. Care with end papers, front matter, paper quality, type, and page composition is a noteworthy factor in the increasing sophistication and importance of picture books.

In addition to the excellent graphic execution, another new trend in picture books is the broadened range of content. The illustrated editions of individual poems, Bible stories, myths and legends, and folk and fairy tales have taken the picture book beyond its traditional concept and audience. Presentations of Alfred Noyes's poem *The Highwayman* (Lathrop, 1973), an illustrated first chapter of Kenneth Grahame's *Wind in the Willows*, an illustrated version of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, as well as Van Allsburg's *Mysteries of Harris Burdick* (Houghton, 1984), David Macauley's satiric *Baaa* (Houghton, 1985), Toshi Maruki's *Hiroshima No Pika* (Lothrop, 1982), indicate that picture books are also being aimed at older children.

The sophisticated themes found in picture books today prompted the editors of *Booklist*, in the 1 June 1983 issue, to select more than eighty-five titles for a bibliography entitled "Picture Books for Older Children." The list was updated with fifty additional titles in 1986.

The younger age bracket—babies and toddlers—can draw on an equally lush crop of titles. Offerings by Rosemary Wells, Helen Oxenbury, Ann Rockwell, Donald Crews, Gail Gibbons, and Tana Hoban lead the field in board and early concept books. Subjects such as cars, planes, doctors' offices, shapes, numbers, animals, trucks, and boats that are suitable for young audiences are appropriately backed with large, simple designs, and bright primary colors.

The public's increasing preference for color over the last decade is probably linked to its fascination with television. This fascination also may be the reason for the increasing influence of animation in picture books. Evidence of this influence may be seen in the cartoon style of James Stevenson and Robert Quackenbush, the energetic lines of Steven Kellogg and Janet Stevens, and the quickened pace of the mechanical books, a popular gimmick from the Victorian era that recently made a reappearance. The pop-up, flip out, fold down, and the lift-the-flap format is artistically and inventively used in titles such as Pienkowski's *Haunted House* (Dutton, 1979), Miller's *The Human Body* (Viking, 1983), Provensens's *Leonardo da Vinci* (Viking, 1984) and de Paola's *Giorgio's Village* (Putnam, 1982). Though these books are produced as gift items for the bookstore market, libraries are finding some engineered books, like those mentioned earlier, as appropriate in introducing story hours.

Along with gimmickry, familiarity is an important element for bookstore buyers and another reason why the seemingly endless editions of alphabet and counting books, retelling of both traditional and lesser-known folk and fairy tales, and the illustrated single editions of other literary forms have exploded onto the market. Five new renditions of *The Velveteen Rabbit*, seven *Hansel and Gretels*, three *Owl and the Pussy Cats*, and six *Snow Queens* within the last several years illustrate the point. Another reason for the plethora of new editions may be that talented illustrators with minimal writing talents can realize higher royalties by circumventing the contribution of an author by using texts in the public domain.

Intriguing parallels can be noted when comparing current fiction trends to those in picture books. Today, plots in both deal with realistic topics—divorce, working mothers and stepparents, as well as death, child abuse, and hospitalization. The portrayal of all-white, conservative, prim children in picture books also gave way in the 1960s to views of multicultural, disheveled, mischievous, and sometimes downright naughty children. In 1963, one year before the publication of *Harriet the Spy*, Maurice Sendak's *Where the Wild Things Are* (Harper, 1963) set a new tone. Featuring Max, a boy who misbehaves and is sent to his room where he conjures up frightful monsters as revenge, this book was considered by many adults to be too audacious for young children and likely to promote similar brash behavior. Though its popularity with children calmed the maelstrom of controversy, it also triggered a spate of books dealing with children's fears, frustrations, and other emotional responses.

Acceptance of the picture book as an avenue for exploring children's emotional concerns, a positive aspect in itself, may be, however, a contributing factor to the loss of story. Just as in fiction, the plot is too often submerged in the business of addressing the problem.

Mood pieces that only evoke sounds of the night, feelings about a mother working, or smells and sights of a day at the beach may successfully and evocatively succeed in their intent; however, they do not have the power of story—the beginnings, middles, and endings—that children prefer and that all too few authors are providing. Despite these limitations, today's picture books offer a rich and exciting experience for children and one made even richer when perceptive adults provide introduction and interpretation.

Trends in Nonfiction Books for Children

Information books have undergone perhaps the greatest revolution of all the genres. Scholarly underpinnings and genuine interest on the author's part ensure authenticity and reflect enthusiasm for a subject that encourages a sense of exploration by the reader. Subjects today are approached seriously and without condescension; perceptive, in-depth writing has placed many informational books solidly in the category of quality literature.

A fictionalized, saccharine, often dull approach was prevalent in early series of nonfiction books that were formulaic and usually written on consignment. This trend slowly evolved into books that were well researched, focused on a specific topic of interest, organized into clear, well-defined segments, and supplemented with source materials, bibliographies, and meaningful graphics.

In recent years a more relaxed style has emerged with some writers using a personalized, you-are-there approach. Jill Krementz (*A Very Young Rider*) and Bernard Wolf (*Don't Feel Sorry for Paul*) were early initiators of this practice, which continues to be popular and successful.

A lighter but still factual handling of material is also becoming apparent as exemplified by David Macauley's *Castle* (Houghton, 1977), Tomie de Paola's *Quicksand* (Holiday, 1977), and more recently the David Schwartz/Steven Kellogg *How Much is a Million?* (Lothrop, 1985) in which information is amusingly wrapped in a cocoon of humor. Inviting and inventive, this approach is a great boon in promoting learning.

The trend toward relegating nonfiction to a position of merely a supplement to the curriculum or as an adjunct to a child's hobby has

been reversed. Books on diverse subjects, ranging from terrorism, mummies, and acid rain to puppeteers, constructing museum models, and underwater photography are now available for young readers. Controversial topics received balanced presentations with biases clearly stated by authors such as Ann Weiss and Laurence Pringle.

Curriculum areas, however, have not been forgotten. Injected with lively writing, specific facts, and anecdotal tidbits, subjects are presented with more clarity and validity than their previously fictionalized counterparts. For example, wildlife books, which continue to encompass a large share of each season's offerings, are for the most part free of anthropomorphism and a storylike approach that tends to confuse children and convey gross inaccuracies.

Care is taken that text and graphics present multicultural images and that females are properly represented. Formerly taboo topics are now found in nonfictional books. Death (Joanne Bernstein, *When People Die*), hospitalization (James Howe, *The Hospital Book*), and the disabled (Ron Roy, *Move Over, Wheelchairs Coming Through!*) are now sensitively and insightfully discussed.

The changing format and appearance of informational books is also important. Photographs—often in full color—are being incorporated more extensively especially in books for older children. When drawings are used, expert draftsmanship and attractiveness are demanded. In some revised editions of earlier works, drawings are replaced by photographs, or art is updated to reflect contemporary times.

Book size, end papers, front matter, amount of white space, paper quality, and type size are carefully planned, lending an aesthetic tone to the overall presentation. Although true for picture books and fiction, these factors are especially obvious in nonfiction. No longer simply decorative, illustrative matter has become integral to the presentation. Placement on the page and relationship of text to graphics are important factors. When well designed, graphics extend the narrative. In the best examples, labeled photographs, drawings, and diagrams contain material relevant to the subject being discussed. In Russell Freedman's *Children of the Wild West* (Clarion, 1983), the caption below a photograph of a pioneer family standing in the doorway of an Oregon cabin points out that a baby sleeps in a cradle made from a packing crate and that a birdcage hangs in the window. This information, which enlarges total understanding, might well be missed without the notation.

Prior to the 1980s, nonfiction has been largely overlooked by award committees. Only a sprinkling of biographies have been singled out as

Newbery winners. However, recent recognition of this genre is evidenced by the awarding of the Newbery Medal to Nancy Willard's poem, *A Visit to William Blake's Inn* (Harcourt, 1981) in 1982, a Newbery honor award to Kathryn Lasky's *Sugaring Time* (Macmillan, 1983) in 1984, a Newbery honor award to Rhoda Blumberg for *Commodore Perry in the Land of the Shogun* (Lothrop, 1985) in 1986, and a Newbery honor to Patricia Lauber for *Volcano* (Bradbury, 1986) in 1987.

Awards propel books into news columns, eliciting attention from an otherwise unaware public. More and more, children's books—specific titles as well as the genre—are receiving press coverage. *The Wall Street Journal*, 13 January 1986, in an article entitled "Children's Books, Selling Like Hotcakes, Tell Kids All About the Cold, Cruel World," states that parents are making children's books the fastest growing market in publishing with "sales expected to exceed $462 million" in 1986. Not only are these comments intriguing in themselves, but also indicate the growing emphasis on children's books.

A few years ago the demise of children's book publishing seemed imminent. Now the flood gates are opening. Publishing houses that closed their children's departments years ago are now reinstating juvenile lines, long-established houses have announced new imprints, seasonal lists are increasing, educational and mass market companies are expanding with both trade and paperback lists, and small presses are proliferating. If current patterns continue, both quality literature and ephemeral products will flourish.

The paperback field is also changing. As more hardback publishers release their own paperbacks, the paperback companies are revitalizing their own sales through establishment of hardcover lines. Romances continue to make up a large part of this market, though there is some indication that this phenomenon is beginning to fall off. There is growing interest in reprinting classics (Wiggin's *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm*, Burnett's *Little Lord Fauntleroy*), "recycling" old favorites (Goldsmith's *Return to Treasure Island*), and reissuing popular stories and picture books in paperback.

The burgeoning resurgence throughout the industry will undoubtedly have an impact. The rush to gain a share of the business is already resulting in a number of inferior productions. This fact, however, is balanced by some of the finest writing and art being produced for any age group. As a result some people view the late 20th century as an exciting time with many options and opportunities; to others, it is an era when quality is losing out to inferior, cheap publications. Children who are exposed to the best of today's offerings can reap a richness of

narrative, a diversity of information, and a sumptuousness of illustration that will provide a meaningful literary and artistic heritage for their years ahead.

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Learning Differences/Library Directions: Library Service to Children with Learning Differences

JUDITH ROVENGER

"Mairzy doats and dozy doats and liddle lamzie divey"[1]

THE PROBLEM OF learning disabilities is a national issue. According to U.S. Department of Education figures, about 1.75 million school-age children have learning disabilities. The most widely recognized estimates are that approximately 3 percent of the children in the United States are learning disabled.[2]

Learning disability, as defined in the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142), is a disorder in the understanding or processing of language, thinking, talking, reading, or math. It is an umbrella term encompassing a variety of learning-dysfunctional symptoms, behavior, and causes. According to Betty Osman of the Foundation for Children with Learning Disabilities, many children with learning disabilities have average or even above-average intelligence. She calls this "discrepancy or lag between overall intelligence and [one's] apparent ability to learn in one or more areas" a learning difference.[3]

Children with learning differences often have difficulty in reading—in distinguishing or decoding symbols or with letter inversion and directionality (e.g., reading *d* for *b* or *p* for *b*). Sometimes the problem is with listening, remembering, sequencing, or organizing information, or with arithmetic processes—calculations or understanding basic concepts. Sometimes the problem occurs with dysfunctions in

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receiving information. Sometimes it occurs with the processing of information or its integration or even its expression. Most often there is an overlapping complex of problems.

What is it like to have a learning difference? One may simulate the experience by remembering the frustration and amusement attendant with the childhood song "mairzy doats and dozy doats and liddle lamzie divey." The frustration was prior to the amused relief that accompanied the discovery that if the words were spoken slowly they would, almost magically, reveal themselves to be "mares eat oats and does eat oats and little lambs eat ivy."

This is an example of scrambled hearing—of how a child with an auditory learning problem might, at times, hear spoken language. One can speculate that it would be easy for a teacher or a librarian to perceive a child's difficulty in deciphering a spoken message as a failure to follow directions or as deliberate inattentiveness on the part of the child. One can also see how easily frustration, anxiety, and loss of self-esteem could further complicate the issues.

Mary Banbury, in her film, *The ACB's of Learning Disabilities,*[4] asks viewers to try writing with their left hands (the right hand if the person is left-handed). She further simulates the experience of the learning disabled child by suggesting that the viewers simultaneously tap out a steady rhythm with the foot opposite to the writing hand. This kind of sensory overload is similar to what a child with learning disabilities might experience. In figure 1 the picture seen one way is a vase, seen another way it is a picture of two facing profiles. It is important to realize that for some people it will be extremely difficult to see both the vase and the profiles. Explaining that the picture contains two different images, depending on whether one focuses on the foreground or the background, might help. Too often children are chided, blamed, threatened, or even coaxed to see what for them is not an act of will or choice to see. The implications for teachers and librarians are manifold and important. It is incumbent upon teachers and librarians to acquaint themselves with learning styles, differences and problems that go with the variety and multitude of individual children whose learning lives they will intersect and affect.

Libraries and librarians have been overlooked and underutilized as resources for children with learning differences. In 1984, the Westchester Library System in New York State received a grant from the Foundation for Children with Learning Disabilities to explore and develop ways in which librarians could become more responsive to the needs of learning disabled children, their families, and the professionals who

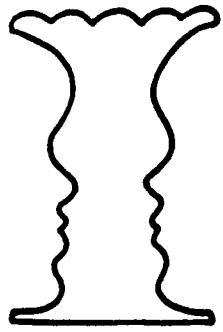

Fig. 1

work with them. The grant involved in-service training sessions for the children's librarians in the thirty-eight member public libraries in Westchester County, the establishment of replicable pilot projects, and the development of printed resource materials.

The in-service training included intensive simulation education to increase sensitivity to the special needs of children with learning disabilities. Librarians developed increased confidence in themselves and in their skills in direct proportion to their new awareness of the needs and problems of learning disabled children. One librarian—who upon the beginning of the training experience questioned how to distinguish learning disabled kids from lazy kids—remarked that she no longer believed that there was such a thing as a lazy child, only lazy librarians. She had modeled her statement on the slogan of special education—"there are no learning disabled children, only teaching disabled instructors."

Librarians also began examining and reviewing books with an awareness to the needs of learning disabled children. Criteria related to print, page design, general format of books (as well as organization), clarity, and use of language had a special significance for librarians newly sensitive to the needs of children with learning differences.

The pilot projects developed in Westchester varied in scope and intent. Several libraries established special book/media collections to provide learning disabled children with broader options, alternatives, and support in reading. One library selected books for library purchase that would be especially useful for school assignments, as well as reading pleasure, that had been recorded for the National Library Service for the Blind and Physically Handicapped. Thus, the learning disabled student could have a matching cassette for the books he or she might choose to read, and the reading process could be reinforced. Mamaroneck Public Library checked catalogs of recordings and matched them up with books available through interlibrary loan services; eventually they will have created an up-to-date catalog of all books in the Westchester Library System with matching cassettes.

Several libraries held parent education programs. Yonkers Public Library held special workshops to address the needs and concerns of Spanish-speaking and other minority parents of children with learning differences. For many parents the opportunity to share their problems with other parents and concerned professionals provided an almost physical relief. It became clear that parents need opportunities to vent feelings, to share anxieties, and to learn methods of effectively intervening and helping their children. It also became clear that parents as well as children respond positively to the nonjudgmental, nonthreatening atmosphere of libraries.

The use of the computer in word processing and creative writing was another project. For many children with learning differences, the computer does not present the same blocks as do paper, pencils, and books. "Keyboarding for Individual Achievement," software designed by Jack Heller especially for the learning disabled, helped students at the Ossining Public Library acquire basic typing skills relatively quickly and easily. It also helped them to improve their spelling and vocabulary skills. Stories and essays were composed more easily with more attention paid to content. There was less distraction from the physical demands of writing and correcting by hand. The final product looked good and reflected the children's efforts. Perhaps most importantly, the children gained a sense of accomplishment and success associated with a writing experience.

The Ossining project began as a cooperative effort with the schools. Designated students were allowed to use the public library during the school day. The popularity of the project continues with children coming in after the school day is over and on weekends, and often with parents, to use the library computer and software.

One of the essays written on the Ossining computer was a joint effort by two fourth grade boys entitled "A Christmans Adventure."

> There was only one thing this little boy liked to do. The one thing was to learn how to read and write nicely. The boy's name was Jimmy. This little boy was very peaceful to be with and good. He liked a lot of things just like me, but most of all he wanted to read and write well for Christmas. He was different from other boys.

A different, but equally successful approach to encouraging children to write was the group creation of a book. The staff of the Mount Pleasant Library worked with the staff and students of a private school for learning disabled children to create a scrapbook about the school. Lively group meetings took place at the library and the children learned to take turns in the discussions using the storytelling technique of the Indian Talking Stick. The completed book is on display at the public library, offering an opportunity for children and adults to learn more about the school and its students. Many of the students, not surprisingly, have become regular library users.

The experience of creating their own book helped the children to understand that books are not some strange form of communication, but merely the writing down of spoken words or thoughts. They learned that they do not have to be intimidated by the thoughts of others just because they are written down.

During the first year of Westchester's project, only two libraries developed storytelling projects. However, these projects were so significant that during the second year of the grant eight other storytelling programs were established and the focus of Westchester's efforts crystallized into a cohesive policy of promoting the use of storytelling and reading aloud to learning disabled children.

Children with learning differences are too often disenfranchized from story experiences. There is a lack of story sharing with learning disabled children. Teachers involved in the storytelling projects in Rye and New Rochelle—previously reluctant to use stories with their students—became delighted with the responsiveness of their children to stories and decided to integrate them into daily classroom activities in the future.

In Rye the children also learned to tell stories. To the amazement of all, the children performed their stories in front of other students and eventually before the town's board of education. The appreciation of the importance of storytelling spurred the Rye Free Reading Room to join with the schools and, with support from local organizations, proclaimed a year-long, townwide festival and celebration of storytelling. A

superintendent's training day required all elementary teachers, including the physical education coach, to be trained in the skills and the philosophy of storytelling.

Storytelling, reading aloud, and the introduction of good children's literature is essential to helping learning disabled children with their reading problems. Appreciating the connection between written and oral language is central to learning to read. Storytelling provides a structure and a context in which this connection can become meaningful. Storytelling also builds confidence and self-esteem, both of which are crucial to learning disabled children. Accustomed to many failures, these children can be helped to extend their attention span, to develop clear, sequential thinking that precedes and underlies the reading process. They can be motivated to read on their own. Above all, storytelling can help them respond to literature with pleasure and view stories and books with joy and confidence rather than anxiety and dread.

Children with learning differences must not be denied access to aesthetic experiences and intellectual content because their reading skills are not equal to the task. They need to hear and to be introduced to good literature.

One learning disabled child's response to hearing Hans Christian Andersen's story of *The Nightingale* for the first time was: "If you hadn't told me that story, I never would have known it. I couldn't have read it myself. But now I know it. Maybe even, sometime, I can read it myself."

It is worth noting that the Commission on Reading, in their report, "Becoming a Nation of Readers," stated that reading in context (which storytelling and the use of good literature in the classroom provide) and hearing good stories are major factors in increasing children's fluency in reading.

Baskin and Harris, in their book *The Special Child in the Library,* make the point that:

> Storytelling is so firmly entrenched as an accepted library practice that the reasons for its popularity are often unquestioned and frequently undervalued. Yet there are few activities that achieve so many academic aims through so enjoyable an experience. Storytelling teaches new vocabulary, stretches attention span, introduces cultural events, norms and values, provides a socializing experience, develops attitudes, and can be the stimulus for language practice, dramatic interpretations, artistic expression, creative writing, and research projects. Clearly then, it is essential that storytelling be included in programming for the exceptional child.[5]

In 1985, The Foundation for Children with Learning Disabilities funded a project by the Churchill School for Children with Learning Disabilities in New York City to develop special materials to support the Westchester activities. Churchill created The Hans Christian Andersen Storytelling Resource Kit. It is an integrated curriculum approach that uses the personality of Hans Christian Andersen (who had learning difficulties) as its focus. The kit contains a self-instruction manual for librarians and/or teachers to develop an ongoing program for learning disabled children in a library setting or classroom. It includes ways to introduce literature by and about Andersen and encourages the use of the folktale and biographical form. Puppets, flannel board figures, storytelling, and "oral" creative writing techniques for the learning disabled are provided. It is important to note that this kit can be used effectively with all children and it provides a subtle way for the child with learning differences to participate fully in library and schools literature programs. The kit also provides librarians with an entry to the schools by giving them something concrete to offer the schools.

The public library can also provide another important service for children with learning differences and their families. It is a place in the community where parents can take their children that is cultural, educational, entertaining, nonthreatening, and nonjudgmental. Libraries are excellent places for parents and children to spend time together sharing books, filmstrips, records, or watching a puppet show, doing a puzzle, or even playing a board game—depending on the scope of the library's resources.

Be aware, however, that beyond the classroom and library there is a whole group of children with learning differences that remain almost invisible to these institutions. These are the children who have entered the juvenile justice system, these are the youth in trouble with the law. There are many reasons why children get in trouble. For some, it is evident that their educational frustrations have played a very real part in this process. The National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention suggests a link between juveniles in trouble with the law and learning disabilities. A 1976 study showed that 50 percent of all illiterate prisoners in the United States were learning disabled as were 30 percent of all juvenile offenders. Educational frustrations may not transmute into antisocial behavior, but clearly the connection is there. The implications for intervention become even more evident when it is learned that 60 percent of all juvenile offenders placed in learning disability educational programs never again broke the law.[6]

The concept of learning differences is a critical one for libraries to comprehend. It encompasses an attitude that respects individual styles of learning. It recognizes and validates the individual needs of each child and reaffirms that each child is unique, different, special, and valuable. There is no concept more basic than this one when working with children.

There are other realities and differences in the community of today's children. Some of them are joyous differencs such as special talents and intellectual giftedness. Other differences show a reality that is a harsh world of childhood—where one out of every four children is living below the level of poverty with the future promising not relief but entrapment in a cycle of poverty, where almost 20 percent of youth between the ages of 14-17 are problem drinkers, where more than 1 million children under the age of 18 are victims of child abuse with about 5000 of them dying annually, and an additional 1.5 million are described as being vulnerable to physical injury from their parents each year, where over two million children come into the court system each year, where 13 percent of all 17 year olds still in school are functionally illiterate with the figure rising to 40 percent among minority students. This other reality reflects some of the different situations among American children in 1986.[7]

The implications for libraries and librarians are there to be seen by those who care to see. Libraries have an important role to play in the reading, informational, educational, cultural, and ethical lives of children. Children's librarians are responsible for helping children become information managers and critical consumers of information. They have responsibilities to nurture their intellectual curiosity and protect their dignity and humanity. They have the responsibility to treat all children as special children and to meet the needs of children in their unique and special individualities. Children with learning and other differences can be helped. They can be brought into the library or libraries can reach out to them with their resources wherever the children are.

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The Effect of Emerging Technologies on Children's Library Service

LINDA WARD-CALLAGHAN

As an agrarian-based culture of the past gave way to the industrial age, the introduction of electronics has revolutionized twentieth-century culture.[1] Proponents of the "Information Age" may vary in their visions of the effect that high speed communication and data transfer will have on the twenty-first century and beyond, but it is clear that whatever developments finally materialize, today's children will be profoundly affected by the introduction of technological applications into their lives.[2]

Faced with a seemingly endless stream of new technology, children's services professionals may well feel drowned in a flood of new devices, new equipment, new applications, all of which carry a vocabulary of foreign terms. The steady stream of new developments and information often seems to be swelling into a raging torrent, threatening to overwhelm the professional with too many choices. Caught in the maelstrom, it is easy to lose one's head or to retreat entirely. Since there is no sign that the flood will be receding in the near future, it is wise to look over the situation and assess this vast influx of new information technology.

On the surface it may seem unnecessary for the children's services professional to be concerned with how technology is shaping the fields of education and librarianship. The schools are investigating computer applications in education and teaching computer literacy while library reference and technical services departments are applying the new technology to acquisitions, cataloging, and reference services. The expanse

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and expense of such undertakings are beyond the scope and budget of all but the largest children's services departments. Concern for these matters seems to be unnecessary until sometime in the future. Yet the trend toward falling prices and rapidly improving technology makes it imperative that children's librarians investigate the potential of new technologies now, before the procedures and systems are formalized, so that children's departments can ensure that when innovations are implemented they will have the capabilities to provide not only for the internal management needs of the department but also to improve the services to young patrons.

Even libraries with limited budgets and no immediate plans for adding technological innovations such as computerized catalogs need to be aware of developing trends; in time such systems will become affordable for even the smallest libraries as power and storage capabilities increase and the prices of hardware fall.[3] An awareness of the capabilities of each emerging technological tool will enable children's librarians to analyze department tasks and to identify appropriate applications in order to communicate their departments' specific needs to the software and hardware vendors.

The professional who remains intimidated by the advent of new mechanisms will find him/herself compromising quality service, important applications, and necessary avenues of access by allowing vendors to dictate the library's needs. It is imperative to analyze and evaluate this field with the same attention that is paid to space allocation, equipment needs, and collection development. Professionals should no more blindly settle for products created by the producers and distributors of technical systems than blindly accept the output of the publishing field. Criticism and expressions of department needs are necessary to ensure that the technical tools are shaped to work for us rather than finding we are required to work with inflexible, established tools that shape our work. As more applications and services are offered by vendors and suppliers, it is important for the library community to communicate with technical suppliers and not accept less than the best approach to local needs.[4]

Technology can bring improvements only if the library community views technology as a *tool* in the provision of library service. Technology should not be embraced blindly for the sake of progress; it can be useful only if it is viewed as a tool and is found to deliver what is needed in a practical manner that is efficient, labor saving, and cost effective.[5]

Children's services librarians are not strangers to the nonprint arena. Innovative formats have been used in children's programming

and services for a long time. Filmstrips, 16mm films, toys, games, puzzles, and similar realia are familiar aspects of most libraries' children's services programs. But the newer technologies of microcomputers, databases in online and laserdisc formats, video formats, and cable television have not been widely discussed in relation to children's library services. These emerging technologies are beginning to find applications in children's services. Because the familiar media formats have been examined and discussed in numerous articles and monographs, this discussion will be confined to these newer technologies that have only begun to be examined.

Microcomputers

Of all the new technological formats, the microcomputer is likely to have the greatest influence on children's library services. Increasing numbers of children are encountering microcomputers as part of their school curriculum and developing a facility with computer use.[6] The availability of microcomputers for public access use in libraries aids in extending the educational power of the computer for young patrons to other applications beyond the classroom.

A growing number of software programs now exist that provide entertaining exercises that reinforce logic skills enabling the child to progress at his/her own pace sequentially from comprehension skill levels through application of knowledge. With well-written programs, the child is able to receive immediate feedback to incorrect responses. The infinite patience of the computer provides for as much repetition as is necessary for the user to grasp a concept.[7] Graphics programs such as PRINT SHOP, NEWSROOM, DAZZLE DRAW, and others offer the opportunity to exercise creativity and experiment with design. Many of these programs offer a set of preset pictures thereby allowing young artists to produce satisfying designs without requiring technical drawing skills.[8]

In a similar manner, word processing programs also encourage creative expresssion among young patrons. Putting pencil to paper can be a laborious task for some children while using the computer for language composition can offer an alternative means of expression that produces satisfying results. This mode of expression is especially useful with patrons with handicaps or learning disabilities.[9]

Even though use of microcomputers is increasing in the field of education, there still exists a vast need for good software that can provide challenges for the student in place of electronic seatwork. Too

much of what is presently available duplicates standard teaching practices without using the computer's abilities to its full potential. Purchasing is difficult when so many programs exist and so few are adequately reviewed. Programs such as Educational Products Information Exchange (EPIE) and local clearinghouses for examination and review are a move to focus on the quality of software programs by obtaining examination copies and reviewing software for appropriate uses, ease of operation, and quality of accompanying documentation such as manuals, charts, and similar support materials.[10]

As public-access computing develops in more libraries, library personnel must become critical, discriminating consumers. The problems revealed by the schools' entry into the computer age can easily be avoided by children's services librarians willing to study the experiences of their educational colleagues.[11] This will mean developing a facility with the use of these tools and a familiarity with their capabilities.

While the use of computers in schools is limited by the constraints of curriculum, the public library can offer a wide range of educational software that challenges young patrons as well as giving them the opportunity to experiment with writing programs on their own. Excellent software programs that are not appropriate to curriculum needs often fit the public library's need to provide a broad range of information. Librarians willing to experiment with the computer will become comfortable with its use, develop an understanding of its capabilities, and gain confidence in evaluating new software for use by patrons or in the management of department tasks.

In a discussion of his LOGO programming model, Seymour Papert warns against using technology only to perpetuate traditional approaches to tasks.[12] With new technologies offering a revolution in present operating procedures, library professionals must be careful not to simply automate library operations without examining each task to determine if a new approach made possible by the new technology, might produce faster, more efficient results. Using a printed dictionary is a more effective use of a tool than searching a computer program for spellings or definitions. But there may be other operations more efficiently handled by a microcomputer—i.e., compilation of statistics, mailing lists, serials holdings, or other tasks that require constant modification of data. In these areas the creation of a microcomputer database to control information can save staff time.

The microcomputer's potential for information storage and retrieval will add a new dimension to the old debate about providing information directly to patrons *v.* teaching patrons to use reference

tools. While it is impossible to predict when compatibility problems will be solved, the microcomputer has great potential—e.g., to connect the user with online databases and library networks through telephone modems; to provide faster access to databases, directories, and large collections of information with the development of compact discs with read-only memory (CD-ROM); and to access and interact with information through videodisc formats.[13]

Most library instruction now takes the form of teaching the patrons to use the card catalog, locate library materials, and use specific reference tools. Widespread use of microcomputer databases will make it easier for patrons to search broad collections of information on their own. Freed from the duties of the reference desk and instructing in how to use specific tools, the librarian can direct his/her attention to giving instruction in research strategy and the basic principles and patterns of information organization and flow.[14]

While children cannot be expected to grasp search protocols as they now exist for online databases, simplified access in the future can enable students to satisfactorily use networks and local library databases without intensive knowledge of what is now the realm of reference professionals. A free-inquiry approach to seeking information would prepare the student for life-long skills in problem solving and information-seeking techniques without requiring that he/she become proficient in elaborate search terminology.[15]

Adult reference departments are experimenting with instructing patrons in how independently to search such databases as BRS-After Dark, Knowledge Index, and Wilsonline. With instruction in search strategy, students certainly would be capable of constructing their own search procedures for science projects, extensive reports, and research papers. Presently search protocols are not sufficiently standardized for use by young people and the fees for searches eliminate most student use, but interactive videodiscs and CD-ROM may present opportunities for students to search these formats as database subscription and connect-time fees fall within reasonable rates.

The laser disc and interactive video formats have the capability to store large quantities of information that can be accessed randomly. Experimental databases, encyclopedias, and union lists are beginning to appear in these new formats as the profession investigates the relative merits of each information source on disc format *v.* print format.[16]

The creation of departmental databases using the computer or laserdisc formats fits into the present children's services practice of providing information resources in a multitude of forms. W. Bernard

Lukenbill's view of the learning resource center of the future is a model public library children's services departments should consider. Lukenbill foresees the future learning resource center to be holistic in philosophy, incorporating teaching and learning resources, information advisement and counseling, instructional development and design, and information media production.

Delivery of current information would be accomplished through database control of news items, government publications, documents, and crisis and community information resources. Access via a database will circumvent the delay inherent in the use of the print medium. While almanacs, encyclopedias, journals, and pamphlets are often dated by the time they appear in print, databases and interactive videodiscs allow for constant modification for information currency.[17]

Cooperative ventures between schools and public libraries could extend this concept to incorporate learning packages, content-related bibliographies, subject access to fiction, community resource files, pathfinders, and access to materials at specific reading levels. As interactive videodisc and CD-ROM continue to be discussed within the profession, children's librarians need to be investigating the development of these formats and evaluating their potential use with young people.

Video

With the increasing number of households acquiring video recorders, libraries have begun to add video cassettes to their circulating collections.[18] These collections are rapidly growing in size and popularity of use, but few children's departments have explored the potential benefits of this technology because copyright considerations prevent unrestricted use in programming. Many children's books already have been adapted to film and released on videocassette.[19]

This new area of the collection raises questions of concern to children's librarians. As significant numbers of video titles are added to the collection, are children's personnel involved in purchase decisions? Are children allowed to borrow these materials themselves? Are separate registration requirements in force?

The VCR video format is compact and more easily loaded for use than 16mm films or filmstrips. Children are capable of loading, searching and rewinding programs independently with less likelihood of damage. While the picture quality presently limits use to small groups, technical advances in monitors and large screen projection will soon make the video format more appropriate for use with larger audiences.

Present use of videos in programming seems to fall into the "public performance" realm of the copyright law requiring libraries to acquire leases or licenses for use of this media in library programming. Legal tests of the public library's relative uses for education and entertainment have not appeared, leaving questions as to whether libraries qualify for educational exemptions or if the law will be modified or clarified in time.[20] As copyright questions and circulation policies are resolved and more works make their way into video from the feature film market and the arenas of commercial, cable, and public broadcast television, the body of visual interpretations of children's literature will expand the horizons for the children's services professional.

Book talks accompanied by excerpts from the visual media will offer involvement of both the auditory and visual learning modes, thus sparking the interest of more children. Adaptation of children's books accounts for a significant percentage of many libraries' circulating video collections. Libraries presently circulating videotapes have already noted the trend that videos generate requests for the literature used for the video adaptations.[21]

While a few adventurous libraries have begun to experiment with in-house production of videos for program recording and staff training, advancements in the technology and declining prices of equipment will make such productions more common in every library.[22] The inexpensive cost of the tape medium will enable children's services departments to tape library orientation presentations for circulation or use with school visits. With permission of publishers, book talks could be filmed featuring readings from related books. Puppet shows and other special programs could be taped and video formats could be used to provide an overview of summer reading program activities for presentation to a library's board. The public library and school personnel could share equipment or work together on projects of mutual concern. The declining costs of video and improvement in production techniques will also enable libraries to purchase several video titles for the same price as a single 16mm feature film.

Children's librarians will be challenged to develop expanded selection skills to evaluate these forms of media and to supervise filming of library productions. A new vocabulary will be needed to understand production values, variety of camera angles, transition between camera shots, faithfulness to the written text, and similar concepts. It is an area that will put demands on professional skills and library staffing, but it may be worth the investment if the development of program packages for school visits, book talks, and special programming can reduce staff planning time.

Commercial, Public, and Cable Television

Many of the concerns inherent in video formats are also applicable to broadcast television. It is a grey area as to whether libraries qualify as purveyors of programming "for educational use." The present law perceives off-air taping, except for face-to-face instruction, as a violation of present copyright restrictions.[23] Children's services personnel need to capitalize on the visual interpretations available through the television media as copyright questions continue to be examined.

Despite criticism of television's role as an electronic babysitter offering a lack of quality programming, this medium plays a significant role in children's culture and is a strong influence in their lives. Afterschool programming and television series such as *Reading Rainbow* have the potential to introduce children to the joys of reading by presenting visual renderings of settings, characters, concepts, and ideas. Rather than ignore the medium, it is incumbent on children's services professionals to capitalize on children's use of television as an information source. Librarians can promote better programming by commending networks and sponsors who have produced quality shows; by communicating with local commercial, public, and cable stations; and by promoting programs based on children's books.[24]

The growth of cable television in the 1980s opens a new outreach source for the public library. While cable contractual arrangements vary throughout the country, the public service mandate often offers libraries studio use, program taping services, and character-generated bulletin boards for announcements. Children's librarians have explored cable productions of young patrons doing book reviews, preschool story hours, library tours, and other special library programs.[25] While not all cable companies are eager to cooperate in assisting with local productions—and the planning and execution of such programs is time consuming and labor intensive—the public's use of television as an information source makes this medium an important format for libraries to explore.

Two recent projects being developed show promising opportunities for blending technology and provide important information sources for children's services professionals—i.e., the University of Pittsburgh's School of Library and Information Science *Mister Roger's Neighborhood* project and the *Kidsnet* database.

Pittsburgh's School of Library and Information Science has begun extensive cataloging and analysis of the concepts introduced in the Public Broadcasting System's series, *Mister Roger's Neighborhood.* Videotapes of the programs are screened, analyzed, and assigned subject

headings which are entered into an online database using child development terms. While problems have been encountered in applying AACRII rules and MARC formats to the puppet characters, imaginary friends, live actors, and concepts of the programs, the project is a model for the subject analysis, organization, and treatment of videotape and television media as a research tool.[26]

The keyword list developed by Pittsburgh's project will provide an example for future study of children's television programming and a focus for further investigation of other visual formats that could be applied to public, commercial, or cable programs as well as videocassettes and videodiscs.

With a broader scope, the *Kidsnet* database of information on children's radio and television is a computerized clearinghouse aimed at providing students, parents, teachers, and librarians with evaluations, synopses, and current data on upcoming programs and related events as well as providing an archival database on previously aired programs.

While still in the development stages, the four-year-old project comprises data on 20,000 programs with access available by subject, curriculum area, grade level, instrumental design, and learning objectives. Special needs audiences are also served by the database through notations concerning programs available for the visually impaired, developmentally disabled, emotionally disabled, motor impaired, bilingual, multiethnic, gifted, and talented. Additional elements identify underwriters and/or sponsors, the availability of study guides, bibliographies, scripts, and related materials, and source information for preview, rental, and purchase. Adaptations from literary works are coded by broadcast title as well as by author and title of the original book, play, or short story thus identifying the title changes that so often occur with radio and television productions. In the future, *Kidsnet* will carry the "Read More About It" bibliography listings in advance of the Library of Congress mailings to schools and libraries.[27]

Targeted to go online in 1986, the *Kidsnet* database is an important step in helping children's services professionals encourage quality viewing and in making radio and television programming relevant to children's educational and informational needs.[28]

Emerging technology does not spell the death of books, reading, or human contact as one might fear. As movable type revolutionized the dissemination of information, modern advances will speed communication and refine the delivery of data with more efficiency. Librarians have the opportunity to emerge as valuable orchestrators of a diverse set of information formats if they perceive their professional role more as managers of information rather than as caretakers of books.

We are comfortable with books as information tools, but each new emerging format is also a potential tool for entertainment, education, or enlightenment, able to serve young patrons when employed appropriately. Children's librarians serve clients who deserve the best sources of information delivered with efficiency and personal attention.

The future rests on how well children's specialists can help the young to make their way in the complex new century to come. If new technology can deliver the answers they need faster and more efficiently, then every children's librarian and child will have more time to curl up with a good book.

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Developing Managerial Skills in Children's Librarians

BARBARA A. IVY

LIBRARIES ARE AT A CRISIS POINT in their history similar to the crisis that must have occurred in monastic scriptoria when Gutenberg invented the printing press. Electronic publishing has to some minds made books obsolete, and the advent of computerized database retrieval systems which claim to solve all information needs instantly seems to make libraries too slow and too old fashioned for some tastes. Even within libraries themselves there has been upheaval never expected. Some information services have become too expensive to provide without charge and the increased number of rapidly changing material formats has been confusing, difficult to maintain, and, in some cases, not worth the shelf space they require. The world in which libraries provide their services is changing so rapidly that some even argue that libraries will be obsolete by the turn of the century.

To some, children's services have seemed to be a refuge of calm in a turbulent world. Books are still popular with children, and the titles and authors do not seem to change fashion as often as they do in adult services. This view, however, does not take into account the enormous changes that have come to children's services within the last several years. Not only have computers invaded children's rooms, but so have realia, videotapes, videogames, toys, animals, and almost every conceivable form and format of media available. Increased emphasis has also been placed on serving clienteles who require special materials and

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attentions, such as the slow learners, the gifted, and the physically handicapped. The hope that libraries and schools can change the discriminatory values of society has caused changes in the types and contents of illustrations, physical descriptions of protagonists, and has added another reviewing criteria—racial and sexual balance—to already stringent requirements.

It would be all too easy, and a mistake, for children's librarians to become so involved in the issues and everyday reality of the children's room that they leave the area of library management to someone else. Children's librarians cannot afford to ignore their management role, nor can they hope that somewhere there is another Anne Carroll Moore waiting to be graduated and provide the leadership necessary to move the field beyond these turbulent times.

This paper argues that leadership and managerial skills can and should be developed in all people to a greater or lesser extent. Since children's services are part of a larger library organization, this article addresses the problems of developing managerial skills to cope with today's issues as a training function of the library organization. Although the suggestions are written for an administrator planning such training, the theories behind each suggestion should allow individual children's librarians to follow and benefit from most of the activities within their current position.

Management is in many ways a state of mind, a way of approaching a problem by looking at it within the framework of relations which exist around libraries and organizations. The decisions that are made, the evaluation that takes place, and the communication that is engendered are all visible results of this thinking process. The suggestions made in this article cost little and should benefit the library as well as the children's librarian and the children's department. It is hoped that by putting these suggestions into practice, children's librarians will be able to develop the managerial skills necessary to cope with today's changing world.

Managerial Needs in the Children's Department

Before beginning to look at the process of developing managerial and leadership skills, it is perhaps wise to review why they are so necessary to children's services. There is a tendency for library directors simply to hire the best children's librarians they can and then forget the whole operation until a problem arises. This may be less a case of feeling that children's librarians are unimportant or that serving children is

inferior to serving adults, than it is an acknowledgment of the children's librarians' special skills and training. Attitudes like these, however flattering, do not help in developing managerial skills, so it is important to look at the children's department and its role in the organization to see what managerial skills are needed.

Robert Stueart and John Eastlick, in their text on library management,[1] discuss several methods of organizing libraries into departments. In the case of children's services, most libraries create one department to handle the supposedly homogeneous needs of children. In management terms this is called departmentalizing by clientele. Some of the advantages of departmentalizing this way are that librarians and staff can become expert in dealing with the literature, reference needs, and programming requirements of a specific group of clients. Client-oriented departments take on most of the functions of the library as a whole and, as such, become mini-libraries unto themselves.

While client-oriented departments may provide excellent service to their own clients, they can have some negative effects on overall library service. Because the departments handle so many tasks that would be handled by other larger departments of the library, client-oriented departments tend to become self-reliant and isolated from other areas leading to communication problems. While these client-oriented departments can provide an excellent training ground for potential managers by allowing them to perform a variety of library tasks, such departments also narrow a librarian's outlook to the needs of a special group rather than the needs of the entire population.

Being head of a children's service department requires the same skills as being head of the entire library except on a smaller scale. For this reason alone, children's librarians who hope to supervise the department need to develop managerial skills. There are, however, some other unique aspects of working with children which require the use of managerial skills.

Recently, increased emphasis has been placed on responsibility and accountability for all public institutions. Schools, libraries, and local municipal offices have been targeted for scrutiny. The lessening of federal tax support and the necessity for local taxing authorities to provide the funding for many existing social programs means that libraries and other service organizations need to communicate a clear idea of their services and how well they are supplying them to the community in order to continue meeting their current and projected funding needs.

Adult patrons can evaluate the services which the library provides on a direct basis just as taxpayers can communicate their opinions to the city or county government office allocating funds. Reports using special evaluation techniques may impress the library board, but librarians themselves receive direct and immediate feedback from their adult patrons, and are, therefore, constantly in touch with the evaluation of their work.

Children's services have a more complex set of evaluation parameters. Children are the primary users of the department's services, and, most of the time, children's librarians focus their attentions on satisfying their needs. Confirmation of the success and worth of their services, however, is not provided by the children but by parents, teachers, and other interested adults who vote to increase or maintain the library's tax base. This group is often thought of as another client group, but for management and evaluation purposes, their needs as clients are less important than their approval of the children's services provided. Ultimately, the children's librarian is accountable to the adults in these groups not just to the children they believe they serve. Understanding and balancing the needs of clients and the needs of those to whom one is accountable requires considerable managerial skills.

The children's department, then, requires the best managerial talents available to it. The desire to allow it to function as a separate area with little guidance or help from other library departments can be harmful not only to developing capable library managers, but it can also weaken the library's position during times of financial exigency. This does not, however, have to be the case. Children's departments can provide an excellent training ground for future managers because of the diverse functions which they routinely handle. By carefully using in-house training techniques, children's librarians have a chance to understand and experience the need to think like managers and to develop their skills into becoming one.

Managerial Skills, Tasks, and Functions

The whole concept of management and becoming a manager is often mythicized by a hazy understanding of what is involved. Some see management as manipulating people to do what is needed by the organization. Others see it as using mathematical formulas and models to foresee the future. Still others see it as requiring promotion to somewhere outside the children's room. Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick summed up the functions of a manager in 1937 into these seven

terms: planning, organizing, directing, staffing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting.[2] Knowing the functions, however, does not necessarily help in developing effective training programs. For that, it is helpful to define what skills are most needed.

Robert L. Katz in his seminal article in 1955 entitled "Skills of an Effective Administrator"[3] identifies three basic managerial skills: technical skills, human skills, and conceptual skills. Katz argues that these skills are not innate, but can be developed, and that they provide a framework for viewing the various tasks managers must perform.

Technical skills are the most easily explained. They are the skills which develop from the training that most children's librarians receive in library school, and, for the most part, they are the professional aspects of any library job. The list of technical skills a children's librarian needs reads like a job description: familiarity with the major works in children's literature, the abilty to answer a variety of reference questions correctly, an understanding of the needs and interests of children in order to provide excellent programming, and a knowledge of cataloging practices. Technical skills are used to perform the tasks that most librarians attended library school to learn. They are the most visible, the most easily measured, and they can become the most time-consuming even to the exclusion of other skills. Eventually they may become the raison d'être of many children's librarians' jobs.

The second set of skills which Katz discusses are the human skills often referred to as leadership skills. In business, these skills are associated with providing leadership and motivation to the department or group being supervised. Children's librarians are faced with developing good leadership skills not only to motivate employees in their own department, but also to lead and motivate children, parents, teachers, and other adults. Through these human skills, children's librarians must communicate with youngsters of all ages and assist them in becoming the adult library users of tomorrow. They also must satisfy the adults who primarily view their work from a distance but whose evaluation ultimately leads to increases or decreases in the library budget.

The third skill which Katz discusses is the conceptual skill. "As used here, the conceptual skill involves the ability to see the enterprise as a whole; it includes recognizing how the various functions of the organization depend on one another, and how changes in any one part affect all the others; and its extends to visualizing the relationship of the individual business to the industry, the community, and the political, social, and economic forces of the nation as a whole."[4] This skill is most

important because it is the ability to take a situation and place it into a broader framework that makes an administrator. It is this way of thinking about problems or issues that distinguishes a manager from other employees no matter what the title or level of administrative responsibility.

Given the three skills areas of Katz, a look at the tasks associated with managers and managerial work will help make the abstract concepts more concrete. Henry Mintzberg has developed the following list of managerial tasks which he feels are important: developing peer relationships, negotiating ideas and plans through the administrative hierarchy, motivating subordinates, resolving conflicts, establishing networks that both provide and disseminate information, making decisions when not all the facts are known or when the "correct" response is not apparent, and allocating resources.[5] Being able to perform these tasks allows the manager to accomplish the seven functions Gulick and Urwick suggest. Just as each of these tasks is necessary to perform several functions, each of the skills Katz enumerates is required to succeed in performing these tasks. A closer look at each of the skills as they relate to children's librarians will help find areas for developing managerial and leadership talents.

Developing Managerial Skills

Two apparently contradictory conclusions come to light when looking at technical skills and children's librarianship. First, expertise in these skills is very important to both client and employee satisfaction. Second, a strong emphasis on technical skills, however, may hinder the development of other skills, specifically those in peer communications and in understanding the library as an interrelated organization.

Since a profession, of which most librarians consider themselves part, is a group of people who share a similar body of knowledge and skills it is logical that the development of technical skills would rate highly for job satisfaction. Proficiency in those very skills which make a person part of the profession leads to increased professional status as well as self-satisfaction. It also would be a mistake to discount the value of the technical skills of the children's librarian as less worthy of development than those of a manager, particularly in organizations as small as libraries where all personnel may be expected to take an occasional turn on the reference or circulation desk. Without an understanding of the technical skills and routines necessary to run the department, there is nothing to support a conceptual framework of library

service. In addition to providing employee satisfaction, a proficiency in these skills should provide a high level of satisfaction for the user. Understanding what is necessary to increase user satisfaction is essential for managers to function since user satisfaction is one of the ways managerial effectiveness is evaluated.

The overemphasis on the technical elements of the job is both natural and encouraged under the present system. Students interested in working with children find extensive course offerings that will help them perform well in their later careers. Library school catalogs abound with courses such as Children's Literature, Children's Services in Public Libraries, and Puppetry for Children's Work. As if there are not enough library courses in which to specialize, education departments offer an equally large array to help the budding children's specialists blossom forth with the knowledge and understanding that dealing with children is a different and perhaps a higher calling than dealing with adults. All this emphasis on children, the clients of the children's department, and the special materials for certain ages encourages a belief that children's work differs from other library services and that its uniqueness should keep it apart.

In the initial stages of professional life, emphasis is placed on developing technical proficiency. This emphasis, however, can inhibit the development of other skills necessary for library management. More specifically, concentrating on technical skills at this early stage to the exclusion of other skills can convince the employee that his importance lies almost solely within the technical sphere. This sets up a false sense of security about his role in the total organization. Comfortable in applying those skills which were learned in library school, he may never venture beyond them because he feels his place has already been established.

A second problem may occur with the emphasis on the technical skills. By concentrating solely on the program within the children's department, the new librarian can be inhibited from developing communication lines within other areas of the library. These friendships and liaisons provide the basis for later information transfer so necessary for the manager to function and make decisions. If one is constantly shown or told that his client group is different from other groups, it becomes much harder for the children's specialist to go beyond his own area to use advice or innovations from the other areas of the library.

There are, however, ways around these problems. Any in-house training should encourage children's librarians to see the relationship

between the smaller structure of the children's room and the larger structure of the library. In order to begin and strengthen lines of communication between children's librarians and others, early assignments might include a day or two in each of the other library departments to compare other organizational policies and procedures with those in the children's department. Certainly a comparison of the various routines used in similar departments would encourage both new and old employees to evaluate their own routines. Since one training function necessary early in any professional's career is socialization into that profession, job rotation and a variety of assignments can be easily fit into this early training function.

After the initial stages of job training, every effort should be made to encourage free and open communication between departments. This not only benefits the library by increasing the amount of information and cooperation which flows between departments, but its real value for developing managers is that it encourages the potential managers to develop a network of information sources which later can be used to provide and disseminate information. Committees within the library should include librarians from various departments and service clienteles so that no problem is seen as being unique to a particular department and not amenable to solution by the whole library organization.

Attending meetings and continuing education workshops can develop technical skills beyond the capabilities of in-house training. Among the benefits derived from these sessions is a better understanding of the relationship of theory to practice and, more importantly, another view of routines and methods practiced elsewhere.

Much has been written concerning leadership over the last forty years. Early theories centered around finding the important traits necessary for a manager successfully to inspire his/her employees to work to increase the organization's effectiveness. When no single group of traits could be found that predicted the perfect leader, researchers turned to behavioral theory. Work done at the Ohio State Leadership School from the 1940s to the 1960s found that consideration and structure were the prime dimensions of leader behavior.[6] Later researchers found other combinations that were important for successful leadership, but much of the leadership literature revolved around managing the subordinate through consideration of his/her feelings and the development of the individual's self-worth. It was the heyday of theoreticians such as Abraham Maslow and his Hierarchy of Needs; Douglas MacGregor with his Theory Y; and C. Argyris and his Immaturity/Maturity continuum. Each of these theories centered around the concept that human behavior

and human motivation were the necessary ingredients for establishing successful leadership styles.

As Herbert S. White points out, this is a popular belief held by most librarians. "They would prefer to believe in the innate goodness of all others and to be guided by the premise that individuals with good intentions will reach common objectives and work cooperatively to achieve these."[7] This somewhat simplistic view of leadership does not, as White points out, take into account the entire problem. If it did, organizations that existed before the behavioral school or which used radically different leadership styles would not have succeeded as they often did.

Current leadership research centers around the work of Fred E. Fiedler who holds that there is no one effective leadership style. He looked at leader styles which center around task structure and those that center around leader-group relations and tested them against various situations with different probabilities of success. The results showed that no one style led to success in all situations. He contends that almost any style works some of the time, and it is the situation which determines whether or not a leader will succeed, not the leadership style.[8] Given these findings, he develops several organizational options which he feels will improve the success rate of leaders. The first is experience. "Generally speaking, time and the concomitant experience increase the leader's control and influence."[9] The second is job rotation or the assigning of managers to different settings in order to increase the range of experiences available to them.[10] Training in leadership, however, is seen as a mixed blessing. Training for task-oriented leaders improves their chances for success, while training for relationship-motivated leaders rapidly decreases their effectiveness.[11] In summary, Fiedler would suggest that the choice of leader for each situation would depend on the orientation of the candidates available. In situations where relationship-motivated leaders are most likely to succeed—those which are unstructured with good leader-member relations and those which are structured with poor leader-member relations—that type of leader should be chosen. In cases where there is an organized task structure and good leader-member relations or where there is a disorganized task structure with poor leader-member relations, a task-motivated leader will perform best.[12]

Since training in leadership skills does not always increase effectiveness, it is important to observe potential leaders and try to establish the group into which they fall. Fiedler does it by evaluating responses to a questionnaire on Least Preferred Coworker.[13] Observations of staff,

while not as scientific, may be equally effective for library purposes. Initial asessment and training can be done with case studies and role-playing whereas later assessments can be made by observing real life situations.

Having determined that effective leadership may rely on the situation rather than on the employee, are there other human skills that children's librarians should develop? Developing communication skills discussed earlier falls under the human skills. Mintzberg found in his review of the literature that effective managers developed vast information networks which helped them identify problems and opportunities as well as build mental models of situations that surround them.[14] Placing children's librarians in positions where they can develop and expand their networks is important. Networks within the library are important and were discussed earlier, but alliances with other children's librarians throughout the state, region, and nation are also important. These contacts can be made through workshops and/or conferences; however, for them to be really useful for developing management skills, the attendee should be taught that developing peer networks and professional alliances is just as important as learning technical skills.

Another important human skill, that of being sensitive to the power structure of the organization, is best expressed by H. Edward Wrapp who argues that good managers understand what positions various individuals and units within the organization have taken on any given issue. It is his contention that a good manager knows where the areas of indifference are and moves proposals through these areas rather than through areas of support or opposition.[15] This, he argues, alleviates charges of favoritism or undue antagonism within the organization. Librarians in all areas should be encouraged to examine the various reactions to plans and try to work them through areas of indifference. However, for children's librarians who so often must try to enlist the support of adults for services to children, the necessity of understanding the political climate is essential. Providing programs and attending meetings of groups of interested adults, such as the PTA or teacher's groups, will help the children's specialist to expand his/her understanding of the community's needs while increasing sensitivity to politics of the community. Children's librarians should be encouraged to be involved in these activities as often as possible.

The final skill that Katz enumerates is that of conceptualization. The ability to stand outside any one department or organization and see how it relates to itself, its community, and the social and political world in which it exists is perhaps the most important skill any manager can

develop. This skill colors the thinking on all decisions and turns adequate employees into potential managers and administrators. Therefore, it is essential to develop this talent among children's librarians since the excellence of their work within their department may depend on it.

Conceptualization skills are most valuable during times of decision-making. Their initial importance lies in the ability to analyze the nature of organizational situations and to perceive relationships which already exist but might be otherwise overlooked. Earlier discussions of building information networks and of including children's librarians on committees which consider problems of only tangential interest to them apply to developing conceptual skills as well. The more the similarities of various departments, functions, and routines can be examined, the more likely a person is to see their interrelationships. In this particular case, placing children's librarians on library-wide committees meets a multitude of training needs. It allows for the development of peer networks, it solves the problem of possible insularity caused by a client-based department, and it provides the necessary food for thought to initiate conceptual thinking.

Occasionally there are no clearly defined relationships or solutions to the problems that face managers. Rosabeth Kantor has found that organizations which are successful in entrepreneurial enterprises use what she calls the integrative approach to problem solving, "the willingness to move beyond received wisdom, to combine ideas from unconnected sources....To see problems integratively is to see them as wholes, related to larger wholes, and thus challenging established practices—rather than walling off a piece of experience and preventing it from being touched or affected by any new experiences."[16] Keeping children's librarians from becoming insular in their concern only for their major client group will expose them to alternative ways of thinking, but encouraging them to be innovative and integrative in their decision-making requires two additional situations. The first is a commitment on the part of the library to support integrative approaches by encouraging the staff to consult with each other, and second, the library itself must be willing to consider fresh ideas from different perspectives.

Another use of conceptual skills is to create a mental model of the world around the library and the children's room. Mintzberg points out that managers do not have the luxury of doing their planning once a year in a secluded mountain retreat. Instead, most managers are forced to make decisions quickly in response to some immediate stimuli.[17] To accomplish this effectively, each manager needs to project outcomes of

decisions onto a model of the currently existing relationships. By conceptualizing this model within his/her head, the manager can visualize the ramifications of any decision he/she makes. This is a fundamental example of taking the reality and conceptualizing it in decision-making.

Wrapp suggests that one of the characteristics of an effective manager is the ability to focus time and energy on a few important projects which will significantly effect the long-term future of the organization.[18] To do this the manager must weigh the outcome of various decisions and foresee which will provide the most benefit for the organization. For children's librarians, this may mean viewing certain children's services in light of the response they will receive from interested adults rather than the response they will elicit from the children. While this may sound like a conflict of interest for the children's librarian, the manager understands that an outstanding children's program which draws the fire of concerned adults is likely to result in withdrawn support for future library programs. Managers who are trying to develop managerial skills in children's librarians and others, need to query constantly the outcomes of various decisions and their impact on the whole library setting so as to instill the importance of making decisions from an organization-wide stance rather than a departmental one.

The final use of the conceptual skills is constantly to reevaluate decisions and relationships to see if expected changes occurred and to develop bases for future managerial decisions. Librarians, like other human beings, are constantly faced with changing conditions, values, and interrelationships. Jobs change from day to day and training begins to become obsolete the day after degrees are received. The only constant in this world is the ability to learn from past mistakes and to change methods in the future. Reevaluating decisions and work provides effective feedback needed to survive. While this introspection may be difficult to develop, it should be encouraged and channeled so that it profitably provides managers with the needed material from which to learn.

Conclusions

Good managers are rare in libraries, and good managers in children's services are often encouraged to concentrate only on their own department or to leave children's work. If libraries are to survive, such waste of human resources cannot be allowed. Libraries must take the responsibility of encouraging children's librarians and other librarians to develop their managerial talent to the fullest.

Katz's managerial skills are only a beginning from which to start in evaluating the means of improving skills and competencies, but they do provide a framework to look at some of the past failings and some future methods of improvement. Using Katz's list of skills and an understanding of how manager's think, libraries can begin to develop programs that teach children's librarians managerial skills. Such programs can be as inexpensive as rotating committee assignments and encouraging particular thought patterns to as expensive as sending people to conferences or to paying for additional coursework. Children and their library services are too important to be inadvertently ignored because of unrealistic or unconscious barriers that are placed in the way of children's librarians' development of managerial skills.

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Evaluation of Children's Services

MARY K. CHELTON

Introduction

THE PURPOSE OF THIS PAPER is to discuss program evaluation concepts and methods, with specific attention to the ways in which they can be applied to chidren's services. The special developmental, demographic, and political factors that may enhance or inhibit the use of program evaluation by librarians serving children will also be addressed, and examples of program evaluation instruments now used in several libraries will be appended for consideration, replication, or adaptation by interested readers.

The article is not intended to be a comprehensive overview but rather a clear basic delineation and defense of the process with resources noted for further self-study. In fact, an attitude of self-study is intrinsic to the entire concept of evaluation; without it, most techniques are useless. To be an evaluator, one must care enough about what one does to subject it to careful scrutiny without resentment. Since many children's librarians are already resentful about doing important work for little money, status, or recognition, evaluation may be automatically suspect. The article is based on the premise that children's services are too important *not* to be evaluated!

There are some important differences between the concept presented in this article and traditional concepts of evaluation in public libraries. Until the last fifteen years, evaluation of library services consisted almost exclusively of measuring oneself against national or state

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standards. These standards were highly prescriptive in terms of the number and qualifications of staff, materials, and square footage. They were generally derived from peer-accepted "best practice" in existing libraries, with some political compromises to make them reasonably attainable by most libraries.[1]

The problem with these prescriptive standards, beyond their obviously self-serving nature, became apparent in the 1960s when a group of researchers from the Rutgers library school began looking at the differences among the "outputs" of similar libraries, all of which met the prescriptive "inputs." They quickly found that putting standard resources (i.e., staff, materials, space, etc.) into a library did not necessarily assure that standard activities (i.e., circulation per capita, percentage of reference questions filled per questions asked, program attendance per capita, etc.) would come out of it. Thus the conceptualization of prior library standards was shown to be faulty, and the profession then started to look critically not only at what different libraries were doing with different resources but also at whether the libraries should adhere to any external prescriptive standards unrelated to local institutional objectives at all.[2]

To say that the idea of prescriptive standards died hard among children's librarians—especially in the public library—is a vast understatement evidenced by their continued publication in the mid-1980s.[3] Why such resistance continues is open to conjecture, although in fairness it is not all inclusive. In 1985, a formal feasibility test of the Public Library Association's (PLA) *Output Measures* methodology was conducted with a group of Wisconsin's children's librarians,[4] and a program on output measures was held at the ALA annual conference by the PLA Library Service to Children Committee.

While the techniques described in this article may extend those measures promulgated by PLA and since they are not aimed at a strictly juvenile population, the bias of the author is definitely toward the means by which local children's services can be shown to be effective, rather than toward the degree to which they meet externally imposed prescriptions that may have nothing to do with local history, resources, or needs.

Evaluation—What It Is Not

Since there is a pervasive tendency among youth-serving librarians to perceive evaluation as either an attack by a hostile administrator, or a once-and-for-all measure of ultimate worth, the following statements

are designed to dispel mythology about what evaluation is or is not.

(1) *Evaluation is not the way by which one's ultimate worth is measured.* In fact, for one seeking assurance of ultimate worth, evaluation should probably be avoided for mental health. That evaluation can be a distinctly threatening activity is quite clearly delineated by Chelimsky:

> Wildavsky points out that "If you don't know how to make an evaluation, it may be a problem for you but not for anyone else. If you do know how to evaluate, it becomes a problem for others." In fact, a major problem in the use of evaluation has been the threat it poses.... First, an evaluation report is public information which, once generated, cannot be kept secret or limited to the private use of the decision-maker. Thus, it provides persons other than the responsible decision-maker with information which may adversely affect that decision-maker. Second, it is a force for change. It seeks ways to improve an existing set of activities, no matter what the purpose of the evaluation...improvement always involves change, rather than the status quo, and change can appear threatening. As James Abert has put it: "The setting of program objectives and the choosing of evaluations are in themselves very emotional undertakings. Program managers generally are not anxious to do it. In fact, trust, confidence, honor, and many of the more noble aspects of life seem to be strongly challenged by evaluation."[5]

(2) *Evaluation is not always complicated.* An example of a deceptively simple evaluation, easily adaptable to children's services, is the Lodestar project carried out by the Patrick Henry Branch of the Fairfax County (Virginia) Public Library in spring 1985. After determining that young adults were an underserved market, the librarians designed a program series with a specific logo (the Lodestar) targeted to the adolescent age group that culminated in a contest to win a star which would then be named for the contest winner. Promotion of the series involved speaking to all the English teachers in local schools and distributing tickets through them to their students for the contest. To actually enter, however, the young adults had to drop off their tickets at the library. Thus, the objective of raising awareness of the library among an underserved group was evaluated (measured) by the number of entries returned divided by the number of entry tickets given out. This process could easily be adapted to measure summer reading club promotion in specifically targeted schools.

Admittedly, this evaluation only measured the effectiveness of the promotion, not the return visits of those introduced to the library this way nor the proportion of young adults for whom this was a first visit, but it was appropriate for what it did, and it was simple. Many librar-

ians promote their programs in a total vacuum; however, in Fairfax County they decided how the program would be measured at the same time that they planned the program.

Another example of a deceptively simple evaluation comes from the Wolfsohn Public Library in King of Prussia, Pennsylvania (see appendix A). When the children's librarians there initiated a toddler story hour, they adapted a one-page evaluation form which asked parents of participating toddlers not only to observe their children at and between story hours to record their impressions of the process of the program, but also to observe the program's impact on their toddlers over time.[6] This is a more sophisticated method because it involves nonlibrary staff, requires voluntary cooperation, and measures more than one aspect; it is, however, simple.

(3) *Evaluation will not always prove what you want it to.* A prime example of this was a feasibility study conducted in 1985 by the author of taping in-house picture-book storytime programs for rebroadcast on cable television. The study consisted of taking a sample of titles in present use by staff in Virginia Beach (Virginia) Public Libraries, mailing request letters for permission to broadcast to the publishers of these titles on a particular day, and then tracking the response time and the percentage of positive responses to determine whether one could do such a program and how long it would take to organize it. Since there was a significant amount of anecdotal evidence that the publisher did not always hold the copyright and that repeat mailings might be necessary, the rate of such repeat mailings was also noted.[7] The results indicated in table 1 show that, for this series at least, it was possible not only to receive enough free broadcast permissions to have a viable program series, but also that the program could be set up within a four-month-period.

One would have to replicate this process successively with different samples of titles and study the differences among the results before deciding whether these permission and response rates held true in general or just for this particular sample. In this instance, though, an evaluative study disproved the previously held belief that copyright clearance presented a serious hurdle to planning such a program.

(4) *Evaluation is not always quantitative (i.e., counting things) even when the results are presented and analyzed numerically.* The cable storytime study offers a good example of this concept. The actual method involved sending the same letter to twenty-four publishers on the same day and then tracking the responses to see what patterns emerged. The Center for Early Adolescence evaluated client satisfaction

TABLE 1
CABLE STORYTIME FEASIBILITY STUDY
(see appendix B for specific titles)

Number of Titles: 42

Inquiries to Publishers		*Response from Publishers*	
Initial letters	24	Initial responses	18
Additional	6	Additional	4
Total	30	Total	22
			(73% of Publishers)
Turnaround Time		Fees	
One month	8	Free (1 time only)	9
Two months	8	Free (3 times only)	5
Three months	6	Free (unlimited)	8
Total	22	Total free	22 (52% titles)
		Fee required	3 (7% titles)
		Range: $25 - $500	

with after school programs by asking the young adolescent participants a structured series of forced-choice and open-ended questions. The process was systematic and evaluative because they asked the same questions of participants at different sites thereby establishing a basis of comparison (see appendix C).

Reference services to adults have been evaluated by means of the proxy patron method whereby a proxy patron asks a real reference question to see not only if one gets an answer but also what kind of answer.[8] This method could be used by children's librarians to evaluate reference service to older children and/or young adolescents. It is a more useful method than the "reference fill rate" of *Output Measures* because the quality of the answer can be studied as well as the interpersonal climate within which the answer was given. Unfortunately, this method is more difficult to administer than the simpler fill rate.

(5) *Evaluation does not solve problems; it only provides the evidence needed to solve problems.* For example, an administrator who feels that a specialized children's services staff is inflexible and expensive, as opposed to generalists who, theoretically, can work equally well with all ages, may be given pause by a well-designed descriptive evaluation study which documents the number of adults served by the children's staff and the activities pursued by the children's staff when children are not in the library. The evidence from the study may not totally erase the bias, but it will possibly help point out that the problem is bias and not fact. The study might also prove that the director is

correct about inflexibility and allow the children's staff to look at themselves objectively, based on facts rather than resentment. Evaluation is not without risk.

Evaluation—What It Is

Evaluation is the means by which a program, service, or activity is shown to have or have not worked or to examine what might work. It involves a systematic and explicit comparison of what actually occurred with what was planned. As a recent tutorial in *American Libraries* (October 1985 to February 1986) put it, evaluation asks the question, "Are we there yet?"[9] Other definitions include:

> ...the process of determining whether something is what you want it to be.[10]
>
> ...examining and weighing a phenomenon against some explicit or implicit yardstick.[11]
>
> ...an attempt to devise in some formal way a procedure for obtaining evidence or assessing how well a goal or objective...has been met.[12]
>
> A systematic way to observe and describe what and how well you are doing to yourself and to others....[13]

Evaluation is an intrinsic part of program design. The methods by which progress will be measured must be part of the original conceptualization process. One cannot decide after the fact that it would be nice to know if a particular activity (e.g., nursery school visits) had a particular result (e.g., increased interest in books) if the method by which the result is measured (e.g., a survey of nursery school staff before and after the visit; circulation to those children/families/staff, etc.) is not built into the data-gathering process of the program at the outset. It is especially important to evaluate programs being done for the first time to establish a baseline. This simply means a record against which future efforts can be compared.

The intentions (objectives) of a program should be clearly stated and measurable because the presence or absence of such objectives determine not only whether a program can be evaluated or not but also what measurement is most appropriate. A good example is the ubiquitous summer reading club. If the stated objective is to encourage children to read over the summer, then the percentage increase in circulation of juvenile materials or the percentage increase in new juvenile card registrations during the summer months might be useful measures. If on the other hand the objective is to maintain reading skills over the summer, then such measures are imprecise. A better measure

would be before and after assessments of reading test scores, comparing similar children who did and did not participate in the summer reading club. Ironically, in the evaluation of most summer reading programs, the second objective is intended, but it is measured by the first set of measures, or worse, only by documentation of increased or decreased participation rates without any attention to the percentage of repeaters (i.e., the effect of repeated participation) among those participating.

An evaluation is done through a series of observations which simply means "any method used to gather data."[14] Frequently the observation method is of necessity some type of survey. An entire body of knowledge is available about survey research. One of the best overviews of the subject is an article by Barbara Moran in which she says:

> Taken step by step, survey research is relatively easy to do. Much help is available to beginning researchers from those already familiar with the method and from books on the topic. The first survey is the most difficult, but with careful planning, major errors can be avoided. Doing research is a lot like swimming; the only way to learn is to get in the water.[15]

Appropriate evaluation methods attempt to control for a variety of "threats" to their validity in attributing an effect to the program rather than to external forces outside the control of the program manager or to unintentional bias on his or her part. The possibility of a cumulative effect from repeated enrollment in the summer reading club program is an example of a factor an evaluator of that program should control for if by no other means than at least by documenting repeaters so they can be compared with first timers.

Levels of Evaluation

There are three distinct levels of evaluation, and it is important to understand the differences among them not only because they are intended to do different things, but also because the sophistication and resources needed to accomplish them increase with each level.

The first level is called a *process evaluation.* This level of evaluation measures the efficiency of the way in which a program is organized (i.e., the process of the program). In a process evaluation, the various elements of a program are reviewed, usually through descriptive record-keeping. This review looks at the way in which the individual program elements are activated and relate to each other. A very good example of such an evaluation is the assessment done by the children's coordinator of the New Hanover County (North Carolina) Library. Using an instru-

ment designed for the purpose (see appendix D), she isolated each component of the story hour process and rated the program giver who presented it. Besides assessing the quality of the program by examining its process, this method is extremely useful for identifying gaps in staff training for this program.

Another kind of process evaluation which most children's librarians do intuitively is observing peak use times within the library and matching staff schedules accordingly. The actual documentation of these patterns has led in some libraries not only to more efficient staff scheduling, but also to better hours for the children's room itself. This kind of ongoing process evaluation, if well documented, can show not only changes over time but seasonal variations within the same time period.

Richard Windsor, an expert in evaluation research, comments that "the importance of specifying process evaluation procedures during the early states of program development and introduction cannot be overstressed."[16] The fact that this documentation of process was not initiated when children's services started in the late 19th century is no excuse not to start it now especially when a few on-site researchers have begun to describe it.[17]

The second level of evaluation is called *program evaluation.* This term is also used generically to mean all levels of evaluation, but in terms of the specific levels of evaluation its meaning is synonymous with impact or effectiveness. In contrast to merely documenting a process, this level of evaluation attempts to determine whether changes that have happened within a specific population at a specific location occurred because of the program. The Wolfsohn toddler storytime evaluation is an excellent example of a program evaluation design, because it attempts to determine the changes in behavior of the toddlers exposed to the Wolfsohn program.

Another example of a program, as opposed to a process evaluation, would be determining whether attitudes toward reading changed as a result of booktalks by the local children's librarian in a particular classroom or in a class visit to the public library. With the cooperation of the teacher and school librarian, it would be fairly easy to use a standard attitudinal measurement, such as those included in *Motivating Children and Young Adults to Read,*[18] to find out the attitudes of the students toward reading both before and after the booktalks. The evaluation design might be further strengthened by assessing a similar group of children who did not hear booktalks and compare the before and after results of both groups. With a comparison group, the possibil-

ity that the pre-booktalk assessment influenced the post-booktalk one would be controlled for because both groups of similar children would have been exposed to the influence of the assessment but not the influence of the booktalks.

This is essentially the process followed by Joni Bodart, author of *Booktalk*[19] and *Booktalk 2*[20] in her dissertation research. One does not, however, need to do a dissertation to implement this kind of evaluation as long as school officials are cooperative.

Measuring a change in attitudes toward reading as a result of booktalks implies that this is the intended impact of the program. If another impact is intended—such as increased circulation by the children who heard the booktalk—another kind of observation method is required. A mere increase in the circulation of the titles used in the booktalk may be too imprecise because it would disguise the effects of peer interaction among children who were exposed to the booktalks and the friends with whom they talked who were not. If the intent of the booktalk program is to promote reading among children or to call attention to "sleepers," a circulation increase in the titles used in the booktalk would be an appropriate measure. In a program evaluation, the impact of the program and possible effects on it must be sorted out at the time the evaluation design and data gathering are being determined.

A program evaluation attempts to ascertain the presence or absence of a variety of "threats" to the possible effectiveness of a program. Many of these problems can be controlled for by the program administrator from the beginning, or, if not controlled for, they can be examined retrospectively to explain a lack of impact unfairly ascribed to the program.

The most familiar threat is called *history* in evaluation jargon. This is the unexpected snowstorm that keeps an audience away on what otherwise seemed to be an ideal night for an evening holiday story hour, or the television movie that results in indifference to an outstanding booktalk. Essentially, history is any extraneous event over which the program planner has little control and which interferes with the impact of the program. Of all the threats, history is the hardest to control but the easiest to explain after the fact. There is probably not a children's librarian working who has not already experienced it.

A second threat is called *maturation*, which means simply that the program is being evaluated while it is still immature enough that the "kinks" of immaturity (i.e., inexperienced staff or participants) are unduly influencing possible effectiveness. An example might be something as simple as a drop in attendance in the first weeks after a new

librarian takes over a storytime program. This does not mean that the program is a failure, only that it needs an initial adjustment period. If the lowered attendance persists, however, it is more likely that something inherent in the program itself (i.e., the titles chosen, the length, or the librarian's skill) is a problem unless something has changed in the target community (e.g., massive layoffs among parents, a gasoline crisis or transportation strike, ethnic/socioeconomic shifts, etc.) The latter would be another example of history. The threats cannot be examined in isolation from one another, and in this case they may be interacting.

The third threat is called *testing*. This occurs when the means of observation—whether an interview, a survey, or an attitudinal assessment such as the one mentioned earlier in connection with booktalks—influences the reaction of the program participants. If children are asked about whether they like to read, then a librarian comes to talk to them about books to read, and they are then asked again whether they like to read, the children may well deduce that they should say "yes" to this person. Thus the second responses will be unduly influenced by being asked the question previously, and the librarian will never know the real effect of booktalks on reading attitudes, or worse, assume a vastly inflated role in changing them. The best way to control for this threat is by using a similar group, also exposed to the before and after influence of the observation method but not to the program. It is also important that the comparison group of children not be able to interact with the ones experiencing the booktalks, or the distinction of the two groups is lost as a basis of comparison.

A threat related to testing is called *instrumentation*. This means the degree to which the method of observation is valid and reliable. Reliability is the extent to which the same measure gives the same results on repeated application. The influence of instrumentation is shown in national polls on public policy issues—such as abortion—where the answers vary depending on how the question is phrased. The key to reliability is whether the particular phrasing is similarly interpreted by all the people responding. This problem is possibly exacerbated with children because of their varying levels of cognitive development even among children of the same age. When the method of observation is a test or survey, it is extremely important to try it out on as many children as possible—excluding the actual audience to be surveyed or tested—to make sure that they interpret the question in the same way. For very young children, these methods of observation are not appropriate.

Validity is the extent to which a criterion really measures what it says it does. A measure can be reliable without necessarily being valid.

George D'Elia has pointed out, for example, that the output measures of materials availability, proposed by the Public Library Association, may really be measuring user behavior rather than materials availability and are invalid.[21] From a children's services perspective, all of the first-level output measures are invalid because they do not take the age structure of the population into account. Not only do they ignore the proportion of children in the population but also the proportion of adults in the child rearing years who might be using the library for their children. At this point the PLA's output measures obscure children's services more than reveal them. The validity of these measures will probably be debated in professional literature for some time, and children's librarians would be wise not to let the debate go on without them.

One of the ways in which one controls for the threat of instrumentation, besides scrupulous pretesting with members of the intended audience, is by inviting outside experts and/or peers to comment on the validity of the measures chosen to document a particular activity. There are also statistical methods to assess validity and reliability. An excellent discussion of all the issues involved in good instrumentation appears in the chapter on data gathering in *Research for Decision-Making*[22] as well as in Windsor's book, and in the titles cited in Moran's article. These methods are outside the scope of the present article.

Another threat is called *regression*. This refers to a statistical phenomenon whereby subjects chosen as an extreme example of any phenomenon will "regress" over time toward the average example of that phenomenon. Regression makes it impossible to tell whether the changed phenomenon was caused by the program or the types of people observed. The regression threat is related to another called *selection*. This refers to the group chosen for study and how representative they actually are of the entire population about whom the investigator might want to draw some conclusions. Selection also refers to characteristics of groups chosen for comparison with the group receiving the program. Selecting the wrong group of people in the first place, or the wrong group for comparison, can interfere with determining the impact of a program. The same references cited for an expanded study of instrumentation also include information on sampling and selection.

Even when the selection process has been sound, *attrition* can pose a threat. This refers to a significant loss of program participants and may give a clear signal that something is wrong with the program. Attrition can happen for a variety of reasons: the program was too long, the publicity was misleading, etc. Attrition, while dismaying, is very important, especially when those who drop out or leave a program

differ markedly from those who stay. A common mistake is to overlook these differences and ascribe success to the program because a reasonable number of people stayed with it, especially when an examination of differences might reveal that the program was least successful with those it most intended to reach. Summer reading club attrition by age and sex begs for such an analysis.

While all the threats to program effectiveness can be discussed separately, they tend to interact in real situations. A thorough understanding of the individual threats to a program provides the necessary insight not only to make programs more responsive in the first place but also to analyze in a systematic way the program's actual effects.

There is a third level of evaluation called *evaluation research* which is usually beyond the resources and training of practitioners, but the results of this level of research should be known to them. Evaluation research is the process by which the theories underlying practitioner programs are scientifically tested. Bodart tested the hypothesis that booktalks improved the reading attitudes of adolescents.[23] Smardo looked at the effect of different types of story hour presentations on the receptive language of children.[24] Powell et al. investigated the relationship between certain childhood experiences and adult library use.[25] Heyns studied summer activity that influenced children's vocabulary scores.[26] Greene compared three different types of library-based early childhood centers.[27] Fasick and England compared media preferences between childhood users and nonusers of a Canadian public library.[28]

Unfortunately, most academic research related to children's services has focused on the contents of materials produced for children rather than the impact of library services on them. Benne indicated that measurement of children's services was a problem because of a lack of clearly defined goals,[29] and the author suspects that this problem carries over to the conceptualization of research. It is doubly important that the little research that has been done be familiar to practicing children's librarians so that they understand that their programs are based on sound theory rather than on tradition. Knowledge of evaluation research can enhance program justification and planning.

Politics of Evaluation

The fact that a program has clear measurable objectives, valid measures, and sufficient resources to document itself does not ensure a successful evaluation although all those factors must be present in order to do one. Evaluation serves more than one purpose within an organiza-

tion. Besides providing evidence for decision-making—and possibly proving accountability to the public—an evaluation should also gain administrative support for solving the problems it reveals. Thus the ultimate success of an evaluation depends on "the skill of the evaluators in understanding the value systems present in the organization."[30] If the library does not have a capacity for self-criticism and change, an evaluation may only be an exercise in futility. Davis and Salasin have proposed eight factors to examine and consider before beginning an evaluation process:

> Ability to undertake and use an evaluation in terms of monetary resources, available staff, and staff energy to mount both the study and for the implementation of resultant recommendations.
>
> Values held in the organization. Specifically, is the organization secure in its environment, open in its decision-making structure, willing to change, and is management able to accept criticism and act on it?...
>
> Information available or that can be procured to support the evaluation.
>
> Circumstances prevailing at the time of the evaluation. Elements examined include recent changes in programs, new or old leadership, state of client relationships, internal conflict, openness in the exchange of ideas and criticism.
>
> Timing of the evaluation should coincide with other activities or programs that might encourage change....
>
> Obligation to change. If there is dissatisfaction with the status quo, changes can occur more easily and naturally.
>
> Resistance to change is always present in the organization, and an understanding of its sources and strengths is critical for anyone evaluating the organization's programs.
>
> Yield. From the outset, there must be assurances by management that it considers the evaluation to be important, that the results of the evaluation will justify its costs, and that it expects to use the results to bring about desired changes.[31]

While these factors are intended to enlighten an outsider who comes in to evaluate an organization, they are equally important for an insider to consider. Just as a children's librarian might feel attacked if suddenly asked to evaluate his or her program, a library director will feel just as attacked by a good evaluation of a children's program that demands change on the part of management. There are political ramifications to "describing oneself to others" through a program evaluation, and they are ignored at one's peril. In many cases it may be necessary to postpone reporting the evaluation results until a change in management precipitates a change in organizational values.

Evaluation Problems Unique to Children's Services

Organizational Isolation

Most children's librarians positions are entry-level, which usually means that there are several hierarchical layers of authority between children's librarians and top management. The resources and support necessary not only to do, but to respond to the results of a program evaluation can be waylaid at any of the levels. This is particularly true in libraries converting to automation. If the children's librarian evaluates the use of the catalog by children and presents children's needs for multiple, popular subject access points before the implementation of automation, he or she may be particularly unwelcome to a branch librarian or children's coordinator who has received a clear message from the top that funding will never cover that level of quality in the system.

Appendix A

Wolfsohn Memorial Library, Pennsylvania
Toddler Story Hour
Parent's Evaluation

We would appreciate your comments about this program in order to help evaluate its worth and to help determine whether it should be continued.

Time of day: Too early____ Too late_____ OK_____
Length:
(each program) Too short___ Too long_____ OK_____
Length: (series) Too short___ Too long_____ OK_____
Place: Too small___ Too many distractions___ OK_____
Size of group: Too large___ OK___

Program and materials used:

Not enough planned_____ To much planned_____
Child not interested in stories_____
Child not interested in activities_____
Stories, activities too old for child_____
Stories, activities too young for child_____
Stories, activities OK_____

Would you attend this program again?_____
Why or why not?_____
_____
Would you recommend this program to a friend or neighbor? Yes___ No___
Did you find this program helpful in selecting library materials for your cnild? Yes____ No_____

Since you both began participating in the program, have you noticed any changes in your child:

Longer attention span Yes_____ No_____
Greater interest in looking at books Yes_____ No_____
Greater interest in listening to stories at home Yes_____ No_____
Greater enjoyment and interest in coming to the library Yes____ No_____
Greater rapport with other children Yes____ No_____
Greater rapport with adults outside the family Yes____ No_____

Do you have any comments you would like to add?_____
_____

Source: C.Y.P.S.L.'s Idea Exchange Handbook, Pennsylvania Library Association, 1981

Appendix B

Virginia Beach Public Library
Cable Storytime Feasibility Study (Publishers/Titles)

Abingdon Press	*HUMBUG RABBIT*
Atheneum Publishers	MAY WE SLEEP HERE TONIGHT?
Children's Press	BLUE BUG GOES TO THE LIBRARY
	BLUE BUG'S VEGETABLE GARDEN
	TIME TO RHYME WITH CALICO CAT
Curtis Brown, LTD	PUPPY TOO SMALL
Doubleday & Co., Inc.	8,000 STONES: A CHINESE FOLKTALE
E.P. Dutton, Inc.	ANDREW'S BATH
	PIG PIG GOES TO CAMP
Greenwillow Books Y Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Books	GOOD AS NEW
	ONE DUCK ANOTHER DUCK
	THE SURPRISE
	PEA SOUP & SEA SERPENTS
	THE GREAT BIG ESPECIALLY BEAUTIFUL EASTER EGG
Harper & Row	GIVING TREE
	MOTHER RABBIT'S SON TOM
Holiday House, Inc.	THE BIG BUNNY AND THE EASTER EGGS
Holt, Rinehart and Winston	BOO! WHO?
	LIANG AND THE MAGIC PAIN BRUCH
Houghton Mifflin Co.	YUMMERS
Little Brown & Co.	MARY ALICE, OPERATOR 9
	ANDREW'S BATH
MacMillian Publishing Co., Inc.	TWO GREEDY BEARS
	ASK MR. BEAR
	MUSHROOMS IN THE RAIN
Pantheon Books	CORNELIUS
	SWIMMY
	THE BIGGEST HOUSE IN THE WORLD
	WINTER PICNIC
Prentice-Hall, Inc.	THE CATERPILLAR AND THE POLLIWOG
	LITTLE PEEP
The Putnam Publishing Group	SOPHIE AND JACK
	WHERE'S SPOT
	THE VERY HUNGRY CATERPILLAR
	THE LITTLE RABBIT WHO WANTED RED WINGS
Rae John Publishers	THE LITTLE RED HEN
Vanguard Press	THE MAGIC BOAT AND OTHER CHINESE FOLK STORIES
Western Publishing Co., Inc.	HOME FOR A BUNNY
	THE GOLDEN EGG BOOK
World Free Flight Press	THE VERY HUNGRY CATERPILLAR

Appendix C

Center for Early Adolescence Program Participant Questionnaire

We are interested in knowing what you think about this program. Please take the time to answer these questions so we can make our program even better.

1. How old are you? _____

2. Are you ____male? _____female?

3. How often do you come to this program? _____

4. What do you like about this program?

5. What do you not like about this program?

6. Is there an adult here whom you talk to when you want advice or just want to talk about personal concerns and problems? ____yes _____no

7. Do you think this statement is true or false? "Almost everyone at this program has a close relationship with at least one adult staff member." ____true ____false

8. Do you think this is true or false? "The adults at this program really care about me." ____true ____false

9 What are the three most important rules here?

10. Do people frequently break the rules here? ____yes _____no

    Why is that?

    What happens when they do?

11. Do you have a voice in making decisions and planning activities here? ____yes _____no

12. Do you feel safe here? ____yes _____no

    Explain.

13. Do you get to do something you are good at here? ____yes _____no

    If yes, what? If no, why not?

14. Do you get to do things you like to do here? ____yes _____no

If yes, name two things:

If not, why not?

What could be done to give you more opportunities to do the things you like?

14. What is the purpose of this program? What does it stand for?

16. What changes would you like to see at this program?

Is there a way you can help make these changes? ____yes _____no

If yes, how?

17. What do you think is the biggest problem young people your age have? Does this program help you and your friends deal with that problem? If yes, how? If no, why not? What could be done here to help you with that problem?

18. How do you get here after school, (for instance, by bus, bike, walking, carpool)? _____

Is this convenient? ____yes _____no

19. Is there something else you would rather be doing after school? ____yes _____no

20. On days when you do not come to this program, what do you do? (Check all that you do.)

a. take care of young brothers and sisters. ____yes ____no
b. participate in school activities (such as cheerleading clubs, and sports. ____yes ____no
c. receive tutoring ____yes ____no
d. participate in other organized groups or clubs ____yes ____no
e. do volunteer work (such as helping in a hospital, tutoring ____yes ____no
f. do work for pay ____yes ____no
g. participate in **non**-school-sponsored team sports ____yes ____no
h. play outdoors in the neighborhood, at a sports field, or on a local playground ____yes ____no

i. go to a shopping district or mall ____yes ____no
j. go to the library ____yes ____no
k. visit a museum ____yes ____no
i. go to church or synagogue activities ____yes ____no
m. hang around (where?_____) ____yes ____no
n. stay at home ____yes ____no
o. visit a friend ____yes ____no
p. other ____yes ____no

21. How did you learn about this program?

22. List some things you would like to do or learn about; for example, "tour a TV station" or "learn how to cook."

a.
b.
c.
d.
e.
f.

23. What else would you like to tell us about how you feel about this program?

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Center for Early Adolescence
Suite 223
Carr Mill Mall
Carrboro, NC 27510

Appendix D

Youth Services Department, New Hanover County Public Library Program Evaluation Form

Scale:
2-poor
4-fair
6-average
8-very good
10-exceptional

Name
Date
Program

		Comments
1. Attitude toward children (cheerfulness, welcoming, comfortable)		
2. Attitude toward parents/teachers (approachable, comfortable, helpful)		
3. Preparation (familar with all material)		
4. Theme (appropriate, used throughout prog.)		
5. Program flow (smooth, orderly, keeps children involved)		
6. Selection of material (app. to age and dev. level of children)		
7. Balance of formats (use of books, AV and activities)		
8. Presentation (voice, movement, body language)		
9. Use of activities (as stimulation or calming factor)		
10. Control (of children and adults)		

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Library Education and Youth Services: A Survey of Faculty, Course Offerings, and Related Activities in Accredited Library Schools

MELODY LLOYD ALLEN
MARGARET BUSH

Introduction

IN RECENT YEARS, libraries across the country have been reporting a lack of qualified applicants for available positions in children's, young adult, and school media services. Professional associations at the state, regional, and national levels have expressed concern about the elimination of youth services courses and faculty positions in the library schools. Is there reason for concern? Are fewer students opting for careers in these specialties? Are library schools providing appropriate preparation for students who choose to specialize in youth services?

In an attempt to develop a broad picture of the current state of education for children's, young adult, and school librarianship, the authors conducted a survey of all ALA accredited library schools (including those in both the United States and Canada) in the spring of 1985. The study was funded by the Emily Hollowell Research Fund of Simmons College. The deans of the schools were asked to supply data on course offerings, enrollment, teaching responsibilities and research activities of faculty, and continuing education programs for the three academic years falling between 1982 and 1985. It was hoped that the collection of precise, concrete information would reveal trends that could provide a basis for improved dialogue between the professional associations and the library schools.

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Of the sixty-seven schools accredited by ALA in 1984, forty-six responded to the survey. The initial mailing resulted in thirty-four returns, and a follow-up letter accompanied by another copy of the survey form brought twelve additional responses. Eight of the respondents, however, declined to complete the instrument or provided little usable information. The thirty-eight usable returns represent 56.7 percent of the library schools.

While the data collected must be viewed as far from comprehensive, it should be noted that some geographic regions are strongly represented. Six of the seven Canadian schools responded; four of the five schools in the Southwest are represented; and eight of the fifteen schools in the Midwest provided information. In the West, five of the eight schools replied but one of these schools is now closed. Fewer than half of the schools in the large Northeast (eight out of seventeen schools) and Southeast (seven out of fifteen schools) provided usable information. Most notably missing is information on the greater New York metropolitan area and North Carolina where there are three accredited library schools.

Survey Instrument

In determining the structure of the survey instrument (see appendix A), compromises had to be made between eliciting detailed and comprehensive information and providing for ease of completion and a timely response. The two-part form asked respondents to list and describe youth services courses and to supply a few very specific bits of data (i.e., enrollment in those courses, the rank and tenure of faculty teaching them). It was decided that a request for more extensive detail or a more directive listing of program characteristics would deter cooperation.

The first portion of the form dealt with questions about course offerings related to children's or young adult services in public libraries and school library media services. Respondents were asked to complete a page for each relevant course, describing content and providing information about the frequency of the course offering, enrollment, and the faculty member(s) teaching the course. The second part of the form consisted of a single page with five questions concerning the transfer of credit from other schools, youth services courses beyond the MLS level, names and projects of faculty members, and continuing education offerings. A final open-ended question invited respondents to list questions or concerns related to the library science curriculum for the youth services specializations.

The design of the survey instrument created ambiguities in tabulation. The division of the first part into children's, young adult, and school services proved awkward for many respondents because their schools did not separate courses in this manner.

Another problem occurred in the section on enrollment. It was not made clear through directions or format that for the purposes of this study each academic year was to begin with the summer term. In some cases the enrollment figures may have been misassigned thus confusing the trend in enrollment figures for that school over the three-year-period.

Results

Courses

The variety of courses offered by the responding library schools in the youth services areas was quite broad both in number and content. Certain patterns and core courses, however, did emerge. On the basis of these results, it is possible to identify the typical number of offerings as well as to describe common and distinctive courses.

Number of Offerings

A total of 215 courses was offered by the thirty-eight library schools from the summer of 1982 through spring of 1985. Additional courses were included in enclosed catalogs but were not reported on the survey forms. These were omitted from the tabulation as were general offerings such as cataloging. Field work or practicum courses were included in the tabulations because of their importance to preparation for school library work and because, in some cases, these courses seemed to be available only to those specializing in school libraries and not in public libraries.

Of the 215 courses, 187 (87 percent) were offered at least twice during the three-year-period of the study; 19 (9 percent) were offered just once; and 9 (4 percent) were reported but had not been offered in the time period. The latter two groups reinforced the fact that a study based on catalog listings could be misleading. Many of those courses offered once were on advanced or specialized topics such as fantasy literature. In 1982/83, 162 courses were given—178 in 1983/84 and 184 in 1984/85. With at least 75 percent of the courses offered in any one year and a 14 percent increase in the number of course offerings from the first to the third year of the study, there appeared to be little doubt that a student specializing in youth services had adequate opportunity at most schools to take the appropriate coursework.

Forty-seven percent of the schools listed four, five, or six separate courses in youth services (see fig. 1). Another 34 percent offered more than six courses. Only 18 percent offered fewer than four courses in youth services. The mean (see table 1) for the thirty-eight schools was 5.7 courses available during the three-year-period. Naturally, many of the courses were given more than once during the study period and in some cases, the enrollment warranted more than one section in a semester.

TABLE 1
MEAN COURSE OFFERINGS BY REGIONS

	Total Courses	*Children's Services Courses*	*Young Adult Services Courses*	*School Library Media Services Courses*
All Schools	5.7	3.1	2.2	1.8
Canada	4.7	2.8	1.3	.7
Northeast	5.9	2.6	1.6	2.4
Southeast	6.1	3.0	2.4	2.3
Midwest	6.4	3.8	2.9	2.1
Southwest	5.0	2.8	2.3	1.8
West	5.2	3.4	2.8	1.2

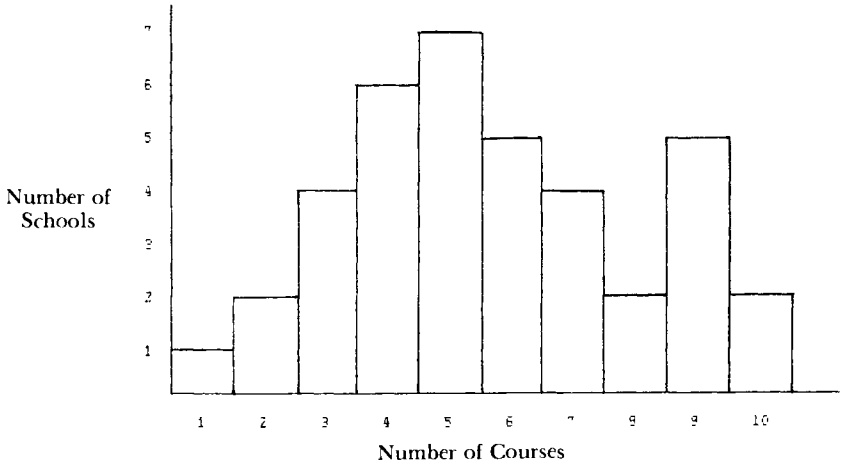

Fig. 1. Frequency Distribution of Total Youth Services Courses for 38 Library Schools

The mean number of offerings in the three specializations was 3.1 courses in children's services, 2.2 in young adult services, and 1.8 in school library media services. Many schools found the breakdown into courses which prepare students to work in children's, young adult, or school library services to be artificial. As a result, many courses were listed in more than one of these categories. Table 1 indicates which geographic regions are the strongest in the various areas by comparing averages of course offerings. Table 2 provides figures for individual schools. The Midwest is the only region to score above average in all four categories.

While the number of courses appropriate for preparation for public library work with children varied from one to six, 71 percent of the schools offered two, three, or four courses (see fig. 2). In a range of zero to five, 63 percent reported one or two courses for preparation for public library work with young adults (see fig. 3).

Forty-five percent of the schools offered three, four, or five courses in school services, but 42 percent listed more than five courses over the three-year-period. These figures include courses also appropriate for public library services to children and young adults. Seventy-seven percent of the schools offered two or fewer courses specifically designed for the school library specialty (see fig. 4). Some of the nine schools with no courses designed primarily for school librarians indicated that other departments within the college/university offered courses to meet state certification requirements.

The relationships among enrollment, number of faculty, and the number of courses offered were examined. A scatter diagram clearly indicated that there was no correlation between median enrollment at a school and the number of courses offered. Schools with large median enrollments did not necessarily have a high number of courses, and those with smaller enrollments did not all have fewer courses. More specifically, schools with high as well as low enrollment figures offered anywhere from two to nine courses. Future researchers could observe whether changes in enrollment are accompanied by related changes in the number of available courses, but the present evidence indicates that the number of courses offered has little relation to the size of the enrollment.

On the other hand, there was a positive linear relationship between the number of faculty (full time and adjunct with an adjunct counting as one half-time employee) and the number of courses. This moderate correlation coefficient of .57 showed that schools with more faculty tended to offer more courses, whereas schools with fewer faculty tended to offer fewer courses.

TABLE 2

NUMBERS OF FACULTY, COURSES AND CONTINUING EDUCATION EVENTS AT RESPONDING SCHOOLS

SCHOOL	*FACULTY*		*COURSES*			*MEDIAN CLASS ENROLLMENT*		*CONTINUING EDUCATION*	
	Full-time	*Adjunct*	*Total**	*Children*	*YA*	*School†*		*No. of Events*	*Attendance*
Region: Canada									
University of British Columbia	2††	0	5	3	2	3(0)	16	3	20-70
Dalhousie University	2	1	6	4	2	6(1)	15	2	30
McGill University	1	1	3	2	1	3(0)	na		
University of Montreal	1	1	2	1	1	2(0)	20		
University of Toronto	1	0	6	3	1	6(2)	10		
University of Western Ontario	4	0	6	4	1	5(1)	19	1	15
Region: Northeast									
Catholic University of America	2	1	7	4	3	7(2)	3		
Clarion University	3	0	4	1	1	4(2)	7	3	19-35
University of Maryland	2	0	4	1	1	4(2)	8	4	20-27
State University of New York, Albany	4	1	6	3	1	5(2)	10	3	38-69
University of Pittsburgh	2	0	9	3	2	9(5)	6	5	90-350
St. John's University	2	0	5	4	1	5(1)	na		
Simmons College	2	1	5	2	1	4(2)	7	1	
Syracuse University	1	2	7	3	3	7(3)	12	4	
Region: Southeast									
Atlanta University	1	0	5	3	3	5(1)	5		
Emory University	1	1	5	2	2	2(2)	4	2	20
Florida State University	4	0	10	6	5	10(3)	12	11	30-96
University of Kentucky	3	1	10	4	2	10(6)	13	9	35-214
Louisiana State University	1	1	4	1	1	(2)	26	4	
University of South Florida	2	0	3	2	2	3(0)	14.5		

University of Tennessee, Knoxville	2	0	6	3	2	6(2)	10	2	
Region: Midwest									
University of Illinois	2	1	7	6	5	7(0)	7.5	1	16
Indiana University	1	1	4	4	3	3(0)	10		
Kent State University	5	2	9	5	4	9(4)	19.5		
University of Missouri, Columbia	2	0	3	2	1	2(1)	6	2	50
Northern Illinois University	0	1	1	1	0	1(0)	13	3	200+
Rosary College	2	1	9	6	5	8(3)	8		
University of Wisconsin, Madison	2	2	9	4	3	8(4)	12.5	2	150-185
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	2	1	9	2	2	9(5)	12	3	50
Region: Southwest									
University of Arizona	2	0	4	2	2	4(1)	15		
University of Oklahoma	3	0	8	4	4	8(4)	13	3	200+
University of Texas at Austin	2	0	5	2	2	5(2)	12.5	3	
Texas Woman's University	2	2	3	3	1	3(0)	15	1	10
Region: West									
Brigham Young University	1	0	2	1	1	1(1)	8		
University of California, LA	1	2	4	2	1	4(1)	6	3	
University of Hawaii	2	0	7	4	4	7(2)	10	2	
University of Southern California	2	2	5	4	4	5(0)	9		
University of Washington	2	1	8	6	4	7(2)	na	3	135-170

* The total courses may not equal the total of children's, young adult and school courses as some courses are counted in more than one area

† The first figure is for all courses relevant for school library services, whereas the number in parentheses identifies the courses primarily designed for school library media specialists

†† One now retired

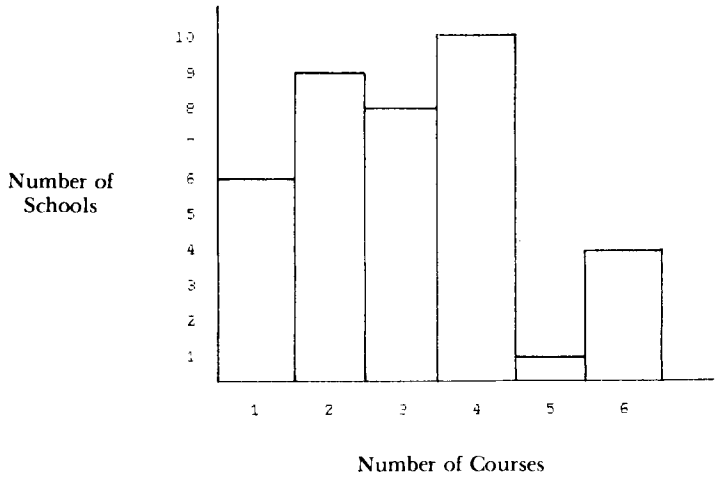

Fig. 2 Frequency Distribution of Children's Services Courses for 38 Library Schools

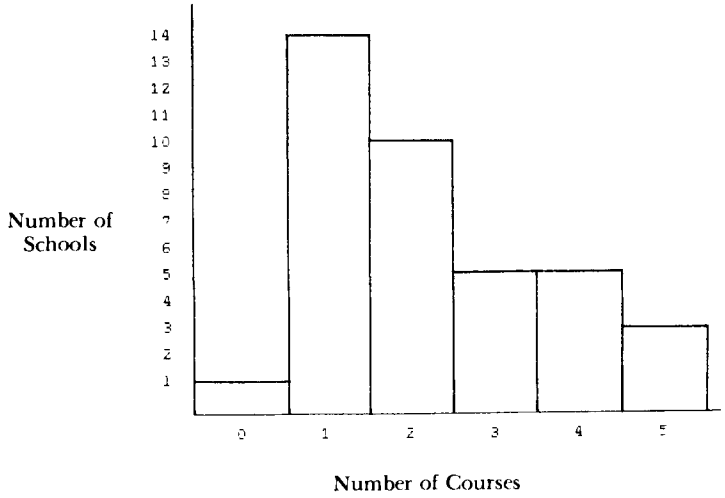

Fig. 3. Frequency Distribution of Young Adult Services Courses for 38 Library Schools

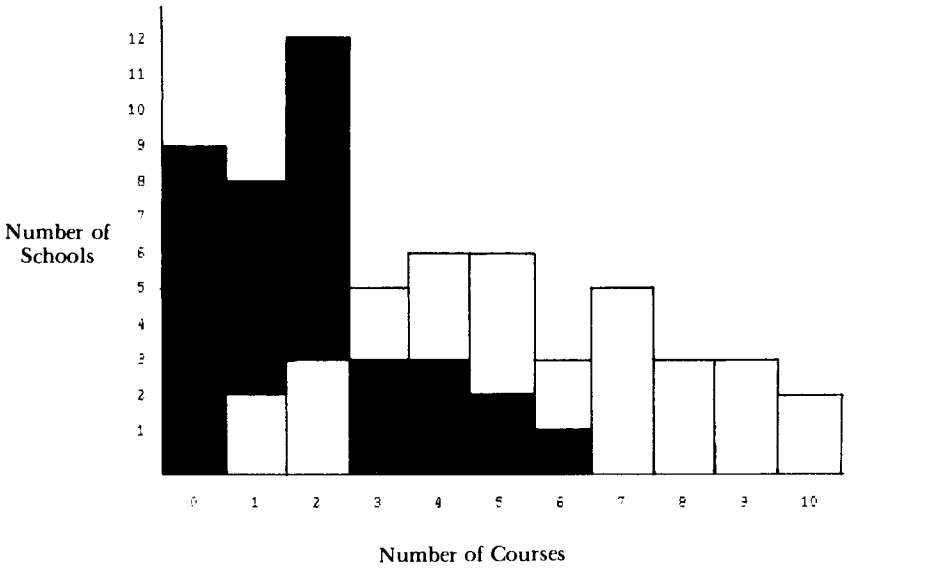

Fig. 4. Frequency Distribution of School Library Media Services Courses for 38 Library Schools

Studies are needed to determine the ratio between the number of youth services courses and the total number of courses offered by each school. With this information, it would be possible to view the emphasis on the youth services specialty within a school in addition to being able to compare each school's youth services offerings with the profile drawn here.

Topics

The variety of course offerings and the variety of course configurations to cover similar topics was unexpected. Course descriptions were used to determine course content, and common elements were clearly identifiable.

Ten schools (26 percent) offered a course on the history of children's literature while thirteen (34 percent) offered a survey course on children's literature. Library materials for children, both print and nonprint,

were covered in one course in thirteen schools (34 percent). In some cases, descriptions of materials courses revealed that the emphasis was on literature with one unit on nonprint materials. Nine schools (24 percent) attempt to cover both materials and services for children in a single course. Materials for children and young adults were combined at four schools (11 percent). Specialized literature courses offered by only one or two schools included critical analysis of children's literature, a seminar in fantasy literature, and a course on children's literature and the creative imagination.

One school offered a course on literature for the early adolescent. Six schools (16 percent) listed a survey course of young adult literature and eleven (29 percent) offer a print and nonprint materials course for the young adult age group. Materials and services for young adults were combined in courses at twelve schools (32 percent).

Most courses in library services to children and/or young adults tended to include programming. There were seven courses (18 percent) on services and programs for both children and young adults, twelve courses (32 percent) on services and programs for children, and five courses (13 percent) on services and programs for young adults. Twelve schools (32 percent) offer a separate course on storytelling.

For students specializing in work in school library media centers, twenty-eight schools (77 percent) listed a basic course in this area. Three schools (8 percent) offered an advanced course in work at the district or system level. At ten schools (26 percent), a course was available on the relationship of media center resources and services to the curriculum. The importance of media in the school program was evident from four schools (11 percent) offering a media production course and eight schools (21 percent) offering a course on the management of nonprint materials and related equipment.

A practicum is generally required for certification as a school library media specialist; however, not all schools listed this offering. Ten schools (26 percent) offered practicums in school library media centers, but just five schools (13 percent) listed this course for students specializing in public libraries. One or two schools offered a seminar in school library media center administration, a course in public relations for the school library media program, advanced topics in media use, current trends in school media centers, or cataloging in instructional media centers.

Enrollment

The data on enrollment were inconclusive. It was hoped that enrollment figures over the three-year-period would indicate trends; however, the results were ambiguous. Although enrollment was declining in some areas, in some cases individual schools were experiencing a surge.

Reported enrollment figures reflected all undergraduate and postgraduate students in classes, not just those working toward the MLS. And a student taking a children's literature course may have no intention of working in youth services. Further studies must seek to isolate the MLS candidates and to compare enrollment in youth services courses with those for other specialties.

The range in enrollment figures by course was varied. The minimums reported ranged from a school with one person in a course to a school whose lowest number was ten people in an offering. One school's largest enrollment in any youth services course was seven people. The largest number of students reported in any course was eighty-one. The median low was four people and the median high was twenty-three people in a class. The median attendance overall was ten people in a class for all courses in the study period. Table 2 shows the median class enrollment for each school.

Many questions remain to be answered in order to see this information in context and to draw any conclusions. What is the total enrollment at the school? Are the youth services courses drawing a large or small share of the student body? How does enrollment in youth services courses relate to enrollment in courses for other specialties? And what are the trends over time within each school for the youth services courses?

Courses Outside the Library School

Of thirty-one schools responding to this question, twenty-seven reported that students may receive credit toward the MLS for courses taken outside the library school to further develop a specialization in the youth services areas. Only two schools do not allow such credit, and another two stated that it might be possible under unusual circumstances for a student to receive such credit. Specific limits as to the number of courses or credits permitted for transfer were stated by eight schools: four schools permitting six credits, two schools permitting a maximum of nine credits, and two schools permitting one course. Three schools

stated that courses are allowed or required from the department or school of education. A few schools implied that they encourage students to further develop specialization outside the library school in areas such as child psychology and reading. Other schools indicated that transfer of credit is by faculty vote only or that credits are transferred only from accredited library schools.

Specialization Beyond the MLS

While thirty-six schools responded to the question of whether courses are offered beyond the MLS to prepare students for work in youth services, less than one-third (ten schools) answered affirmatively. Twenty-one schools stated that no courses are offered beyond the master's degree; two schools are developing courses, and three reported a sixth-year program offering opportunity for advanced study but no specialized youth services courses at this level.

The sixth-year program for a Certificate of Advanced Study was mentioned by five schools as the type of program provided. A Ph.D. program was mentioned by two schools, and an Advanced Master's Degree (AMD) and a Doctor of Arts degree were each listed by one school. Three schools listed continuing education courses provided beyond the MLS. Descriptive comments from two other schools listed post-MA courses available for school media specialists to assist them in improving their ranking in the state-devised salary schedules and the provision of "seminars open to some master's and all post-master's students."

Faculty

Seventy-six faculty members and twenty-seven adjuncts teaching youth services courses were identified along with nine full-time faculty members who reported interests and projects in the youth services area but did not teach a youth services course during the study period (see table 3). Information on faculty characteristics and activities was derived from both parts of the survey.

The majority of the full-time faculty are tenured (66 percent) or in tenure track positions (22 percent). The baseline figures established here will make it possible for future studies to determine changes in youth services positions. Only one in five faculty members teaches exclusively youth services courses and almost none teach outside the library school.

Identification of Faculty and Their Interests/Projects

A very practical outcome of the survey is the listing of forty-eight faculty members doing research in the areas of children's, young adult, or school library media services. It should be noted that this list does not correspond exactly to the numbers and types of faculty teaching courses as reported in the first portion of the survey. While there is undoubtedly a very high percentage of overlap, the listing here includes faculty who devote a portion of some other course to youth services issues (i.e., public libraries and management courses, etc.) or who are currently doing projects related to youth services though their major expertise lies elsewhere. The faculty members named represent twenty-five schools; the remaining schools either stated that there are no faculty currently involved in research or other projects in youth services or declined to answer the question. Of the responding schools thirteen named two faculty members conducting current projects and another eight schools reported one faculty member each. Three schools reported having three such faculty, and one school named five different faculty members.

At least fifty subject areas were identified as faculty interests. The several subjects mentioned by three or more people were intellectual freedom (3), magazines for children (4), management of school library media centers (3), materials/services for the physically handicapped (3), and young adult literature (5). Nine people also listed children's literature either as a general concept or in some specific area. Storytelling, one of the historically fundamental aspects of children's services, was specifically cited by only two people. Since respondents varied greatly in the specificity of their answers and were not asked to rank their interests, it is not clear how complete or representative the subject list may be. The current projects described included a wide range of research and writing efforts as listed in table 3. A few consulting projects or leadership responsibilities in professional organizations were listed as well.

It should be noted that many individuals described *either* their interests or projects without being specific about the other category. Furthermore, the list of projects tends to be very much underreported since respondents were asked to describe current projects rather than efforts completed during the full three-year-period covered in the first part of the survey.

Continuing Education

Twenty-five schools reported offering continuing education (CE) programs during the three-year-period (see table 2). The number of

TABLE 3
FACULTY REPORTED AS FULL TIME IN RESPONDING SCHOOLS

NAME	SCHOOL	INTEREST/PROJECTS
Aaron, Shirley	Florida State University	Research School Library Funding; 1985-6 President AASL
Aceto, Vincent J.	State University of New York, Albany	
Amey, Lorne J.	Dalhousie University	Surveying YA services in Canada; School Library standards
Anderson, Dorothy J.	University of California, L A	Oral History of Children's Services; "Legacy of Mildred Batchelder"
Bard, Therese Bissen	University of Hawaii	
Bartley, Barbara G.	University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	
Baughman, James	Simmons College	Completing Monograph on Public Library Trustees
Benne, Mae	University of Washington	Intellectual Freedom; Chair 1986 Caldecott Com., ALA
Biagini, Mary Kay	Kent State University	Adolescent Reading Interests; School Library Programming
Burns, Nancy	University of Southern California	
Burt, Larry	Dalhousie University	
Bush, Margaret	Simmons College	Non-fiction Materials; Professional Education Issues
Buttlar, Lois	Kent State University	
Callison, Daniel	Indiana University	Media Center Management; Writing book of case studies
Cariou, Mavis O.	University of Toronto	Co-authoring study on language differences in software and books used by elementary school children
Carroll, F. Laverne	University of Oklahoma	
Chobot, Mary	Catholic University of America	
Cochenour, John	University of Oklahoma	
Corry, Brother Emmett	St. John's University	Grants for school libraries
Cote, Camille	McGill University	
Dequin, Henry	Northern Illinois University	Services to disabled children/young adults
Donnelly, Eleanor	University of Western Ontario	Survey on status of children's services in Canadian public libraries
Dumont, Rosemary	University of Oklahoma	
Edmonds, Leslie	University of Illinois	Parent education; Survey on career paths of children's librarians
Egoff, Sheila	University of British Columbia	
Eisenberg, Michael	Syracuse University	
Estes, Glenn	University of Tennessee	History of children's literature; Regional literature
Farley, John J.	State University of New York, Albany	
Fasick, Adele	University of Toronto	Co-authoring study on language differences in software and books used by elementary school children
Fitzgibbons, Shirley	Indiana University	Textbook censorship; Co-authoring book on reference needs of children
Fuller, Miriam	University of Missouri	Dissertation (in progress) - Wordless Books

Glazier, Jack	University of Missouri	Project on "Golden Age of Children's Literature"
Gothberg, Helen	University of Arizona	
Hart, Thomas	Florida State University	Revision of guidelines for school media centers
Herman, Gertrude	University of Wisconsin, Madison	Illustration; French children's literature
Hunt, Mary Alice	Florida State University	
Immroth, Barbara	University of Texas	
Ivy, Barbara	Texas Woman's University	
Jackson, Clara	Kent State University	International children's literature
Jamieson, Alexis J.	University of Western Ontario	Conducting survey of status of children's services in Canadian public libraries
Jetter, Margaret A.	University of Pennsylvania, Clarion	
Karp, Rashelle S.	University of Pennsylvania, Clarion	
Karzenbrock, Marilyn H.	University of Tennessee	
Kaye, Marilyn	St. John's University	Project on popular culture and adolescents; Author of children's, young adult books
Kies, Cosette	Northern Illinois University	Latchkey children
Kimmel, Margaret M.	University of Pittsburgh	Project Director: Fred Rogers Archive; book on reading aloud
Lary, Marilyn	University of South Florida	
Laughlin, Mildred	University of Oklahoma	Completing book - children's literature grades K-5
Lawson, A. Venable	Emory University	
Liesener, James W.	University of Maryland	School library/media management
Luckinbill, W. Bernard	University of Texas	
McChesney, Kathryn	Kent State University	Materials and services for exceptional children/young adults
McConnell, Anne	University of Kentucky	
McCuskey, Sr. Loretta	Rosary College	In progress: Serials for Children
MacLeod, Anne S.	University of Maryland	Storytelling; Children's literature in its historical context
Marchionini, Gary	University of Maryland	Microcomputer applications in education
Mills, Joyce	Atlanta University	Computers, children's data banks
Mitchell, David L.	State University of New York, Albany	Library instruction in public schools
Morariu, Janis	University of Maryland	Curriculum design, computer programs for physically handicapped
Neill, S. D.	University of Western Ontario	
Noonan, Eileen	Rosary College	In progress : Serials for Children
Orsini, Lillian K.	State University of New York, Albany	Magazines for children; Contemporary children's literature
Payne, Patricia	University of Pennsylvania, Clarion	
Perritt, Patsy	Louisiana State University	Young adult literature
Richardson, Selma	University of Illinois	Author: Magazines for Children, Magazines for Young Adults
Rogers, Joanne	University of Kentucky	Schools and networking
Roggenbuck, M.J.	Catholic University of America	

TABLE 3 (cont.)

Ross, Catherine L.	University of Western Ontario	Canadian authors
Saltman, Judith	University of British Columbia	In progress: book of Canadian authors for Oxford University Press
Shaw, Spencer	University of Washington	
Shields, Dorothy	Brigham Young University	
Smith, Alice G.	University of South Flordia	
Smith, Lotsee	Texas Woman's University	
Stanton, Vida, C.	University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	
Szpakowski, Janina-Klara	University of Montreal	
Terhune Joy	University of Kentucky	Dissertation in progress: School Librarian Certification/Kentucky
Thomison, Dennis V.	University of Southern California	
Truett, Carol	University of Hawaii	
Van De Voorde, Ronald	University of Arizona	
Van Orden, Phyllis	Florida State University	Research project: refereeing process in professional literature; Author: The Collection Program in High Schools
Williams, Helen E.	University of Maryland	Children's and young adult literature and services
Williams, R. David	Emory University	Impact of computer/media on information exchange
Woodworth, Mary L.	University of Wisconsin, Madison	Intellectual freedom; Historical development of young adult literature
Woolls, Blanche	University of Pittsburgh	Survey of school librarians using OCLC machine readable records in PA high school libraries
Wynar, Lubomyr	Kent State University	

Faculty Reported as Adjunct

Anderson, Mary Jane	Northern Illinois University
Baker, Augusta	Texas Woman's University
Champagne-Boulais, Danielle	University of Montreal
Dresang, Eliza	University of Wisconsin, Madison
Feldman, Sari	Syracuse University
Gillmore, Sally	Kent State University
Gregor, Lucille	University of Southern California
Grover, Robert	University of Southern California
Hill, Sue	Louisiana State University
Hopkins, Dianne Williams	University of Wisconsin, Madison
Katz, Wendy	Dalhousie University
Kerr, Margaret	Emory University

Lindauer, Kaye	Syracuse University
McDonald, Richard	University of Illinois
Markuson, Carolyn	Simmons College
Patrick, Patricia	State University of New York, Albany
Purrucker, Mary	University of California, Los Angeles
Rancer, Susan	University of Kentucky
Richey, Virginia	Indiana University
Rubin, Rhea	Kent State University
Suchy, Robert	University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Thurston, Robert	Rosary College
Thomas, James L.	Texas Woman's University
Van Winkle, Ms.	Catholic University of America
Varvarikos, Maria	McGill University
Wager, David	University of Washington
Wilkin, Binnie Tate	University of California, Los Angeles

events per school ranged from one to eleven with a total of eighty programs offered. The three schools holding the greatest number of programs were the University of Pittsburgh (5), the University of Kentucky (9), and Florida State University (11).

Attendance reported for the CE programs ranged from 10 to 350 persons (see table 2). Fifteen events were attended by 100 or more people, and nine of these had audiences of more than 200 people. Only one event attracted 350 people—this was "Child & Story: A Symposium Honoring Fred Rogers" held at the University of Pittsburgh. It was impossible to ascertain whether there were widespread decreases or increases in attendance at CE programs during the period because several schools did not report attendance information.

Only one school reported canceling offered events for lack of response. Since this information was not specifically mentioned in the questionnaire, it is possible that there were other unsuccessful events that were not reported. Several of the events were cosponsored by library schools and professional associations, large libraries, or other units of the parent university. The programs drawing the largest audiences tended to be events traditionally associated with children's library services—storytelling workshops, book discussion days, children's literature conferences, and author/illustrator festivals.

By far the most popular subject for CE events in the youth services was children's books or literature—twenty-seven (exactly one-third) of the reported events fell in this area. There were eleven events related to storytelling and eight on microcomputers. Other subject areas included management of school libraries with seven events, aspects of children's services with six events, and five events with authors and/or illustrators. Only two events were listed pertaining exclusively to young adult literature; however, this topic seemed to be included as part of some other events. Finally, eleven events were reported on miscellaneous topics not related to the earlier mentioned categories. These included media production, library displays, and intellectual freedom. Perhaps one of the most interesting findings in this section of the survey was the correlation between the frequency of CE events related to children's books and storytelling and the relatively sparse mention of this subject area under faculty interests and projects.

If the attendance figures allow no particular conclusion about increasing or declining audience interest in continuing education, there does seem to be an increasing interest on the part of library schools. Only four events were reported for July through December 1982. In 1983, there were fourteen events; in 1984, eighteen events; and in the first

half of 1985, there were twenty. It is possible that respondents tended to report more fully on current events and underreport earlier ones for which figures may not have been as accessible for the faculty member completing the report.

It may be, however, that there is an actual increase in CE offerings in the youth services area. If this is the case, it would be interesting to know more about the impetus for the increase. Are events being offered to develop interest in youth services in schools where regular course enrollment has dropped? To what extent do the CE offerings—both in range of topics and size of audience attracted—correlate with the number of faculty in the youth services areas at a particular institution? Why did some schools report no CE events? Does the lack of offerings reflect a lack of institutional or audience interest in youth services? Are there other philosophical and political factors within these institutions which result in an absence of CE?

Questions/Concerns of Respondents

Eight respondents completed this section of the questionnaire and only two responses were positive—"Our program is comprehensive and well-respected with our faculty providing leadership in the region." A second positive comment came from a school reporting that the credit hours for the basic children's services course have been increased in order to include more material on management. Six respondents offered negative comments:

> Fewer and fewer people are expressing an interest in children's and young adult services.
>
> School Librarianship is hopeless here—there is a big decline in schools. Though we have a faculty member, there are seldom any students.
>
> We have seen a dramatic drop in people seeking children's services and school library careers in the last 10 years—now the shortage of children's librarians is nearly critical.
>
> There is a problem attracting people even when courses are offered.
>
> Most school librarians are going to non-ALA accredited state colleges where they can meet state certification requirements more cheaply.
>
> Public libraries are no longer funding YA services. Low pay in children's services is keeping talented people out of the field.
>
> The library school has a problem finding people to hire in these fields who meet university standards for empirical research.

Though it is not known how widespread this final list of concerns might be, they came from virtually every region in the country with the exception of the Midwest!

Conclusion

Though this study did not result in a clearly defined analysis of curriculum, enrollment, and faculty efforts in children's, young adult, and school librarianship, it did amass some substantial information and, more importantly, raised numerous questions that might be explored by other researchers. Although individual schools have lost faculty and course offerings in youth services, ample opportunities do appear to exist for students who wish to specialize in youth services. As mentioned earlier, the relative strength of youth services specializations in a particular school must be judged in the context of the total enrollment and course configuration of that institution. Additionally, to judge strength of preparation and student interest in these areas of specialization, comparative studies should be done with other specialties such as information science or special library work.

Unquestionably, there are signs of vigor and commitment to youth services in many library schools. There is an impressive number of faculty members teaching a common core of courses within an interesting range of course offerings. The full extent to which teaching responsibilities of faculty may have shifted in recent years as a result of changing demand for the courses in these specializations is not known. Some schools sounded notes of discouragement, but the overall conclusion from this study must be that there is reason for concern, but not despair, about the future of education for youth librarians.

Appendix A

The Survey Instrument

Simmons College LIS Graduate School of Library and Information Science

300 The Fenway Boston Massachusetts 02115

March 21, 1985

Timothy W. Sineath, Dean
University of Kentucky
College of Library and Information Science
Lexington, KY 40506-0027

Dear Dr. Sineath:

Library professionals across the country are becoming aware of a shortage of qualified youth services librarians available for positions in school and public libraries. With a new baby boom already underway, it is critical that we examine this problem. In order to understand the current situation better, we are collecting basic information about the preparation that graduate library schools provide for students in the area of youth services.

We are aware of several programs being planned to develop dialogue between library adiminstrators, educators, and youth services specialists on issues of education and recruitment for this important area of librarianship. At present there is little concrete information about the courses being offered in the library schools and the numbers of students specializing in youth services. Will you please help us to develop a more complete picture by completing the enclosed survey? Your cooperation will give us a more accurate reflection of current library education offerings and enrollments. The results, which will be published during the coming year, will assist us in identifying much more clearly the current state of library service for children and youg adults and provide information for planning to meet the existing shortages.

Thank you for your prompt assistance. We will be happy to share the results of the survey if you will note your request at the bottom of page one.

Sincerely,

Melody Brown

Melody Brown
Supervisor of Young Readers' Services
Rhode Island Department of State Library Services

Margaret Bush

Margaret Bush
Assistant Professor

Appendix A (cont.)

SURVEY OF GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL PREPARATION FOR WORK IN CHILDREN'S, YOUNG ADULT AND SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA SERVICES

There are two parts to this survey. The first part includes a page of questions for each of the following: public library children's services, public library young adult services, and school library media services. Two copies of each page are included. Please use a separate page for each course; use a blank page or photocopy a particular page if you offer additional courses in that area.

If you have courses which apply to more than one area you need not supply the full information twice; in the second area put the title of the the course and then write in the name of the area where the full information appears. (For example, a course called "Adolescent Literature and Library Services" might be taken by students preparing for work in Public library Young Adult Services and those planning careers in School Library Media Services. You would supply the full information on the page for Public Library Young Adult Services; on the page for School Library Media Services write only the course title and add the note, "See Public Library Young Adult Services.")

The second part of the survey consists of a page of general questions applying to all three types of library services. Thank you very much for your assistance with this project.

Name of Library School _____

_____

Name and Title of Person Completing Survey _____

_____

***Please return the completed survey in the enclosed envelope no later than _____.

Appendix A (cont.)

Part I.

1. Please list the courses you offer which prepare a student for work in public library children's services. Include the course title, the catalog description and the major topics covered. Also indicate when the course was offered during the last three years, what the enrollment was for each time it was offered, and whether the full course or only a part of it deals with children's services. Please supply the name(s) of the person(s) who taught the course and provide the status, rank, and teaching responsibilities as indicated.

Course Title:

Catalog Description:

Topics Covered:

Offered:	Semester	Enrollment
1984/85		
1983/84		
1982/83		

Full course _____ or part of course _____

Name of teacher of most recent offering:

Full-time faculty or adjunct _____

Academic Rank _____

If full-time, faculty member is: Tenured _____; Non-tenured but holding a tenure track position _____; Not in a tenure track position _____.

Does this faculty member teach library science courses which are not related to youth services? _____ If so, please list the courses:

Does this faculty member also teach courses in another department or school? _____ If so, please list the courses and departments in which they are taught:

Appendix A (cont.)

Part II

4. Do you give credit toward the MLS (or its equivalent) for courses taken outside the graduate library school by students who wish to further develop specialization in children's, young adult, or school library media services?

5. Do you offer courses beyond the MLS level which prepare students for work in children's, young adult, or school library media services? If so, please describe briefly the types of courses or programs available and state how many youth services specialists are currently enrolled.

6. Please list names, special interests, and current projects of faculty members doing research in the areas of children's, young adult, or school library media services.

7. Please list any continuing education courses or workshops the school has provided in any of these areas during the past three years. Please give the date of each event and the number of persons attending.

8.Please add other questions, concerns or comments you would like to share regarding these particular areas of the library science curriculum.

From Superstition to Science: The Role of Research in Strengthening Public Library Service to Children

M. LESLIE EDMONDS

> *Sup-er-sti-tion.* The tendency to assign cause and effect relationships to events because of temporal association or connections that are supposed to exist between them.[1]

YOUTH SERVICES IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES are often based on superstition. The psychologist, B.F. Skinner, introduced the term to mean the incorrect assignment of cause-and-effect relationships based on chance occurrences. Particularly if these chance occurences happen more than once, it is possible to falsely expect these events always to happen together. For instance, the idea that the presence of good literature in the children's department causes children to be more discriminating readers may be better supported by superstition than science. It is likely that chance brings the reader and good literature together or that discriminating readers search out good literature or that the matching of child and book is more controlled by advice from a third person (parent, peer, or librarian) than by simple availability. We simply do not have enough research on choice of reading matter to make scientific judgments.

One might argue that—although most librarians might not admit to being superstitious—this confusion of cause and effect is not particularly bothersome. Superstition, however, can get in the way of effective management of libraries and it can inhibit the ability to adapt to a changing environment. If library personnel believe that good literature in the collection makes good readers, a decision might be made to increase the collection development budget and decrease the number of staff available to do readers' advisory services. If providing good litera-

M. Leslie Edmonds is an Assistant Professor, Graduate School of Library and Information Science, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

ture in the collection plus offering good help in using the collection results in good readers, then the decision to cut down on readers' advisory services will decrease the chance of developing good readers.

Another example of nonscientific behavior can be found in book selection. If one believes that good literature is identified exclusively through reading reviews, it is reasonable to ignore books not reviewed. This behavior can cause a problem particularly when publishers introduce new types of books into the market. Often, there is a lag between a change in the market and skilled reviewing, so the librarian may miss some good books because of the false assumption that reviews are the sole source for identifying good books. Superstition can impede good decision-making. If children's librarians depend on superstition, the profession is prone to attack from those who expect them to be accountable for their actions.

Most librarians try to avoid superstitious behavior, but the profession does not have strong theory, a large body of research, or established facts to protect it from superstition-based library management. Public library service to children is sometimes considered a "classic" success story. Public library service to children is well established and available throughout the United States. There are approximately 10,000 central, public libraries in this country.[2] It is reasonable to assume that each has individuals serving children. The range of public library service to children is great, from a children's corner in the Sidell (Illinois) Public Library serving a population of 600 and occupying a refurbished Laundromat, to the many suburban public libraries around the country with several professionals, multimedia collections, and extensive programs, summer reading extravaganzas, and teen activities. With all the effort expended on behalf of children's service nationwide, is it really necessary to worry about superstition? One might, in fact, argue that if library practice is superstitious, one need not be too concerned. We are successful so maybe superstition works just fine.

The problem is, however, that fine may not be good enough to keep the profession alive and that if superstition is replaced with a clear understanding of cause-and-effect, both professionals and clients will benefit. Children's services have traditionally depended on the attraction of children to story time, the assumed value of providing material support to students, and the excitement of the child who finds just the right book to take home to enjoy as its raison d'être. Many have fallen into the habit of believing that doing anything with kids in libraries is good, or more to the point, that it is good enough. The possibility for doing the *best* for children is ignored.

This attitude is one of the reasons that research in children's service has been fairly infrequent and often on the periphery. If children's specialists are happy with superstition, they do not want to go to the trouble to look carefully at cause-and-effect and may find research challenging to their beliefs. It is the intention to diminish the role of superstition in children's librarianship and to optimize the contribution to children's lives that is the context for library research. As children's librarians are more and more likely to be asked to justify their work by tangible, identified benefits, research can aid in accountability for services and can be used in problem solving and planning.

Research is beginning to emerge in several areas that may effect improvement of children's service. In these areas, research is the antidote for superstition. A review of this research will be presented with emphasis on issues in librarianship that will shape the profession for the rest of the century. The remainder of the paper will deal with recommendations for improving the research climate in children's librarianship.

Overview

As pointed out by Mary Kingsbury, "librarians need not simply be content with the myriad descriptive reports of successful programs in individual libraries that make up so much of the professional literature."[3] There is call for systematic research going back to the 1940s[4] and it is about this time that research reports on children's service begin to appear. There are two excellent reviews of research in the area of service to children in public libraries and related fields. Readers are referred to an article by Marilyn Shontz in the Winter 1983 issue of *Top of the News* entitled "Selected Research Related to Children's and Young Adult Services in Public Libraries"[5] and an article by Shirley Fitzgibbons in *Emergency Librarian* also in 1982 entitled "Research on Library Services for Children and Young Adults: Implications for Practice."[6] These provide a clear review of research done up to the early 1980s. Both *Top of the News* and *School Library Media Quarterly* provide updates on current research through their regular research columns.

Instead of providing a general review of current research, this paper will focus on three areas of particular concern to children's specialists. A review of research in reading can provide implications for library science from an educational point of view. Research in the area of school/public library cooperation offers an example of research that impacts on the management of children's services. Lastly, research

dealing with measurement and evaluation of services and accountability can have significant information for the providers of youth services.

Reading Research

The National Commission on Excellence in Education starts its report by stating "our nation is at risk." The commission goes on to say that "the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people."[7] The commission recommends that we realign the curriculum, that we set higher standards for student and teacher performance, and that we give more financial support to schooling.[8] In examining the library's role in serving a nation at risk, the American Library Association formed the Task Force on Excellence in Education. This task force identified four "realities" for libraries. They are: (1) learning begins before schooling, (2) good schools require good school libraries, (3) people in a learning society need libraries throughout their lives, and (4) public support of libraries is an investment in people and communities.[9] One might change the second point to read "good students need good libraries," but otherwise there is little question about the soundness of these statements. They connect the work in libraries and resource centers to the educational health of the nation.

The promotion of reading and a commitment to producing a literate populace must be central to the provision of library services to children in the coming decade. *Becoming A Nation of Readers*[10] provides an excellent summary of the issues in teaching and promoting reading. This research and its recommendations are a reaction to a decade of "skills" instruction in reading. This may be called the mathematical approach to reading in that it describes reading as a group of integrated skills and facts that need to be memorized and mastered. In this approach there is little or no emphasis on reading as an enjoyable or satisfying activity nor is there emphasis on reading comprehension.

In *Becoming A Nation of Readers* the authors make a number of recommendations that are of interest to librarians. First, they recommend that prereading activities that focus on reading, writing, and oral language are important.[11] This suggests that the traditional preschool storytime and other programs for young children do promote good reading habits. Another recommendation is that there should be support for school-aged students' continued growth as readers.[12] Such

programs as summer reading clubs or reading games and contests help children to become successful readers.

The other area of recommendations relating to libraries is that children should be given time to read independently, that their books be interesting and comprehensible, and that schools should have well-stocked libraries.[13] Again, these recommendations support good library service—particularly reader's advisory and collection development—and call attention to the link between library services to youth and reading success by students.

In another study of reading behavior, Adele Fasick surveyed children in Canada to determine how the public library met their recreational reading needs. Fasick found that users and nonusers were very similar as groups with the implication that nonusers might be convinced to use the library—and thus to do more reading—without any dramatic changes in library service.[14]

The research in reading is often contradictory, complex, and rarely related directly to library services, but the implications are clearly there. Good books help children read, readers' advisory and reading promotion will strengthen reading instruction, and traditional library programs support good academic programs. If Fasick is correct, it may also be assumed that children are liquid in their library use patterns and thus can be influenced to change from being nonusers to users of libraries. Research does suggest then that librarians can help children become better readers through collection development, individual reader's guidance, and library programming.

School/Public Library Cooperation

In 1970, the New York State Education Department issued its *Report of the Commissioner of Education's Committee on Library Development* that recommended that school libraries, not public libraries, should serve children through grade six. Since then, much of the research in this area focused on surveys to determine the level and nature of cooperation between the two types of libraries. Typical of such research was a project done by Shirley Aaron at Florida State University. She was particularly interested in institutional structures that would facilitate cooperation. The structures, as Aaron reported them, were administrative and political rather than service oriented.[15]

Most research on school and public library cooperation is like Aaron's work. It is descriptive and deals with specific cooperative activities. Esther Dyer, using a Delphi survey method, asked librarians about

their views on library cooperation. She concluded that "cooperation between school and public library services to children is not expected to be a priority program in either institution....The abstract ideal of cooperation is reinforced, but actual implementation seems implausible."[16]

In a study done in a suburban community, this author explored ways to make school/public library cooperation possible and effective.[17] It soon became apparent that the school and the public library had different organizational structures. Because the school's structure involved many more types of individuals, it seemed important to involve staff in addition to the school media center teacher. Emphasis was given to involving the assistant superintendent of the school district, the district level media specialist, the building principal, the building media specialist, and the classroom teacher.

The project was an experiment to measure the effectiveness of classroom teachers in motivating fifth and sixth grade students to use the public library. The activities for teachers, students, and librarians were simple and included book talks, teacher-directed conversation, and self-monitoring by students. Ease of participation was determined to be a key component. Each group—the teachers, students, and librarians—was busy and so to assure ongoing commitment to cooperation the tasks were designed to be relatively easy. Of course, the last key component was that there would be some benefit to the activity, both to the institutions and the individuals involved. In the case of this study, teachers, media specialists, and librarians developed a basis for information exchange and resource sharing, and students did, indeed, use the public library more often and more effectively. The administrators were given data to show that the cooperative activities improved service to students and gave them an opportunity to show the community that the school and library, as institutions, were committed to improving the quality of library services offered to the students.

Research, in this case, indicated that cooperation probably would not happen under normal conditions. If it is determined that it is important for youth specialists to cooperate, a stratified plan must be developed to consider organizational and individual needs. The plan must include relatively simple activities which have a measurable impact on student behavior.

Measurement and Accountability

In the years to come, youth librarians will need to become more adept at justifying the benefits of special service to youth. This is the age of accountability. Children's librarians are particularly ill-equipped to

meet this challenge as there is not a large body of research to build upon. Mary Jo Lynch points out that children's specialists do not define basic terms such as children's service as compared to young adult service, nor do they use standard measures when collecting statistics.[18] Since funding and support are likely to depend upon output measures and planning process activities, it is important to make sure that these measurement activities are used within children's services and that they accurately reflect children's librarians' responsibilities. The Wisconsin Division for Library Services has taken a step in this direction by funding a pilot project to explore the use of output measures for children's services.[19]

The purpose of the Wisconsin project was to see how techniques from the *Output Measures for Public Libraries* could be adapted for children's services, to determine how librarians could use outputs to measure service, and to observe how children respond to such data gathering.[20] Only a preliminary report from this project is available, so it is unclear at this time what adaptations of output measures are needed. Zweizig, Braune, and Waity do suggest, however, that separate measurement of children's services is appropriate and that particular effort to measure juvenile outputs during the summer in addition to the school year may be important.[21]

It is important to note that the output measures now available are not the only, nor necessarily the best, way to measure service. More research is needed to develop valid, reliable, efficient ways to measure children's services. It is important to develop a uniform statistical process that is consistent over time and comparable among libraries. It must be recognized that it will be difficult to evaluate any innovative project, no matter the area, if a means is not developed to measure the effects of innovation. Research provides the foundation for change. Without a strong foundation, innovative efforts will be susceptible to collapse and dependent on luck rather than intellect for success.

In an attempt to build the *best* library environment for youth, educational research can be used to sharpen the focus and assist in designing programs that match the needs of children as learners. In managing the library environment, it is important to explore and test ways to cooperate both within and beyond the library so that once built, the best library environment will survive. It is important, too, to encourage a commitment from library educators and practitioners to measure both basic and innovative services so that it will be possible to begin to assert the value of library service to youth. Research is the tool that will help sustain children's specialists through the development of improved services.

Building a Favorable Research Climate

As is demonstrated in the previous section, careful research can relate directly to library practice. Research can diminish the role that superstition plays in providing public library service to children. However, it is still relatively rare that research is undertaken to examine service issues in children's librarianship rather than children's literature. It is perhaps even more unusual for practitioners to be aware of research findings or to use these findings to improve service. To change this situation, a favorable research climate must be developed within the profession. Library services exist in a political arena where information is power. Solid research can help to ensure support for service to youth and help to provide for the fair distribution of information and services to youth. Research can help to sort out which services, both traditional and innovative, are the best to offer. The quality of service offered makes a difference. If usable access points are not provided, if trained and sympathetic youth specialists are not available, and if strong collections are not developed, some children will lose the chance for excellence that is their right. Research will help to identify high quality programs.

There are several specific areas that can be addressed to improve the quantity, quality, and applicability of research in children's services. The first is general and has to do with attitudes toward the profession. The concept that change is possible and desirable must be accepted and children's librarians must be ready to take risks to bring about change. Professionals must be willing to accept responsibility when things go wrong and accept the inconvenience that often goes along with change. In fact, the role of researcher must be accepted with a pioneer spirit. As such, children's librarians are called upon to have individual commitment, versatility, luck, courage, and intellect. As with the original pioneers who formed communities—"coalitions" in eighties' jargon—for health, safety and social context, children's specialists need to work together to endure the current elements of nature: budget cuts, fewer and fewer professional colleagues, and lack of administrative support for children's services. Without this energy and openness, research will remain the domain of doctoral students and library educators and will have little impact on the profession. Cooperation between practitioners and academics will improve the quality of the research done and help ensure that the results of research will be usable.

The second area of concern is that institutions and professional associations give support for research. This, of course, is primarily in the form of financial support but also could include time, space, and consent to take on research as part of library service. There are some

research grants available from ALA and its youth divisions[22] and there are many federal and private foundations that support research activities; however, more support is needed from state agencies and state library associations. Librarians are reasonably successful fund raisers and are dependable in dues support of library associations. Perhaps some funds should be earmarked to support research.

Support, however, goes beyond financial issues. Individual libraries must be willing to sponsor research and individual librarians must be given time and encouraged to do research. Library educators are probably the only people in the profession who have both time to do research and a reward system that supports research. These few library educators provide the backbone of our corps of researchers. Public libraries may allow research but few actually reward or expect it. If public library directors wish to see improvement in children's services, they must encourage research rather than simply tolerate it.

The next area of concern has to do with weaknesses in the technical design of research in children's services. Ten years ago the primary tool of research in libraries was survey research.[23] It has become obvious that there are weaknesses in this method and that there are innovations in data analysis which make it possible to expand research possibilities. The advent of statistical packages for use on microcomputers makes fairly high powered analysis of data possible at a reasonable cost. Survey research will be enhanced through improved access to statistical analysis and experimental work will be more feasible if the problems of data analysis are reduced. It will be necessary to expand horizons to include a multivarious approach to research.

The weakness in any research technique now available is that the investigator begins with almost no valid, normed, and reliable forms of measurement. At this point it is necessary to coordinate efforts to design instruments that meet a high standard of acceptable performance. It may be wise to borrow from other disciplines (education, psychology, sociology, etc.) and adapt more established questionnaires, inventories, and tests to the library environment. Researchers must take the responsibility to field test and refine surveys and other measurement tools and begin the practice of replication of studies to provide a way to generalize results of research.

Another problem is inherent in doing research with children. When doing research with children as subjects, researchers have particular legal and ethical responsibilities for protecting the rights of children that are different and more stringent than those that are applicable in studying adults. This may be one reason that researchers have chosen to work with children's books rather than with the children themselves.

While federal regulations involving the protection of children as subjects have become less rigorous in the past few years, most universities and school districts expect researchers to obtain parental consent when doing any formal research with children, including survey research. This consent must be informed, and so often the act of consent may alter attitudes and behavior of parents and the children studied. Also, the research must mask results to protect the privacy of the children studied. For instance, if a public library wishes to collect information on children identified through the local schools, no information on individual student behavior can be provided to the cooperating schools or teachers. This can have a dampening effect on cooperation. Librarians have an obligation to provide for confidentiality, and this factor must be considered in research design. In dealing with the issues of instrumentation—research design and research ethics—librarians need to be creative and maintain high standards of performance to produce research that will be useful.

The last area for concern relates to the implementation of research rather than to the design issues addressed earlier. The first concern is to find and nurture skilled researchers in the field. Although this may be the primary responsibility of library educators, it is currently acknowledged that there are relatively few library schools in existence with strong master's programs in children's services. As a result, in many states there is a critical shortage of qualified librarians for children's positions. A similar problem of recruitment exists at the doctoral level. If people are not trained and interested in research in children's service, the research will not be done. It is vital to attract students to Ph.D. programs who use children's services topics for dissertation research and will then provide leadership in the field and continue to design research after their doctoral studies are completed.

The other area of concern related to implementing research projects is the need for researchers to publish and disseminate information on their projects. There are few journals that will accept formal research reports in the area of children's service. Other vehicles must be identified for sharing research ideas and for providing a forum for critical analysis of research results. In addition, all librarians have the responsibility to be intelligent consumers of research reports. Practitioners must react, question, and test reported research results.

In summary, then, there are four areas that can be identified in which there needs to be improvement in the research climate in children's librarianship. First, there must be an energetic and determined demand for research in the field. Financial and job support for research and researchers must be obtained. Efforts must be made to improve the

experiment process for studying children. Responsible steps must be taken to implement actual research projects. Without careful consideration of these four areas, it is unlikely that research in children's service will be strong enough and varied enough to impact the field.

Conclusion

It is very comfortable to stay the same. Superstition-based librarianship has allowed the profession to establish tradition in the field. It is possible to be good librarians and to provide good library service based on this vague understanding of cause and effect; however, the capability to continue to justify decisions based on traditional values and to provide good library service to children is being questioned from both within and outside the profession. If library service is to be improved, it is necessary to replace superstition with science or at least to determine which aspects of traditional children's service are based upon superstition and which are not. Research is the tool to aid in this sorting out process. The desire to contribute to children's lives and a responsibility to use institutional resources in the most productive way provides the context for library research. Research is a tool to improve public library service to children. The tool must be developed to perfection and then put to use.

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Procedures for Proposing & Guest Editing an Issue of *Library Trends*

Scope

Library Trends focuses on library and information science topics of interest primarily to practicing librarians and information scientists and secondarily to educators and students. The style and tone of this quarterly are formal rather than journalistic or popular. *Library Trends* issues review the literature, summarize current practice and thinking, and evaluate the directions practice is taking. Papers must represent original work, published for the first time in *Library Trends*. Extensive updates of previously published studies are acceptable, but revisions or adaptations of published work are not sought.

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An issue editor proposes the theme and scope of a new issue, draws up a list of prospective authors and articles, and provides short annotations of the articles' scope or else gives a statement of the philosophy guiding the issue's development. The issue prospectus is examined by the Graduate School of Library and Information Science (GSLIS) Publications Committee and requests for clarification or modification may be made before the prospectus is approved.

Once the prospectus is approved by the GSLIS Publications Committee, the issue will be scheduled for publication and the issue editor begins by inviting authors to write for the issue. The Publications Office will alert the authors to issue deadlines and will send them "Instructions for *Library Trends* Authors." The issue editor also will be sent a copy of the instructions along with "Suggestions for *Library Trends* Issue Editors." The suggestions are culled from our experience in editing and dealing with questions raised by issue editors and authors. Included are the typical stages an issue passes through; responsibilities of the issue editor; the responsibilities of the Publications Office editorial staff; and the typical timing of the writing, editing and production stages. Generally, it takes 1-2 years from proposal to publication.

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Summer 1987, *Recent Trends in Rare Book Librarianship.* Editor: Michele V. Cloonan, Doctoral Candidate, Graduate School of Library and Information Science, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Fall 1987, *Trends in Library Buildings.* Editor: Anders C. Dahlgren, Consultant for Public Library Construction and Planning, Department of Public Instruction, State of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

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